DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 190 471 SO 012 786

AUTHOR Williams, Ann M., Comp.
TITLE Looking At...Important Topics in the Social Studies.
INSTITUTION ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, Boulder, Colo.: Social Science Education Consortium, Inc., Boulder, Colo.
SPONS AGENCY National Inst. of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C.
REPORT NO ISBN-0-89994-250-4
PUB DATE 80
GRANT 400-78-0006
NOTE 80p.
AVAILABLE FROM Social Science Education Consortium, Inc., 855 Broadway, Boulder, CO 80302 ($6.95)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC04 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Anthologies: Basic Skills: Citizenship Education: Content Area Reading: *Educational Trends: Elementary Secondary Education: Ethnography: Higher Education: International Education: *Interviews: Local History: Older Adults: Oral History: *Social Studies: Staff Development: Teacher Centers: Values Education
IDENTIFIERS Doublespeak

ABSTRACT

This publication contains reprints of interviews with leading educators on specific topics of interest to social studies educators at the elementary, secondary, and college level. Twelve interviews from the "Looking At" series were selected to be reprinted in this anthology because the topics are still timely and the comments of the educators interviewed are still pertinent and valuable. All interviewees were invited to update their interviews. Some made no revisions at all: in most cases the changes they made were few and minor. Topics include school ethnography, public doublespeak, oral history, back to basics in social studies, reading in the social studies, evaluating values education, local history, citizenship education, staff development, teaching about aging, international education, and teachers' centers. The first interview is on school ethnography and includes a discussion of how ethnographic data can provide careful description and cultural analysis of what is going on in a school. The interview on public doublespeak will be of interest to teachers concerned about honesty and clarity in communication. Oral history is discussed as a teaching method which can be used in the precollegiate study of local history. One interview examines what the back to basics issues meant for social studies educators. It is pointed out that social studies in the elementary schools is not in very good shape because of lack of emphasis on content knowledge. At the secondary level most able students are getting very good programs: however, the average and below average students are being greatly short changed by watered down courses. The back to basics approach will rectify this situation if it results in a reexamination of what the public wants the schools to accomplish and an examination of whether they are actually accomplishing it. (Author/RM)

ED190471

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LOOKING AT . . .
IMPORTANT TOPICS IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Compiled by Ann M. Williams

SO 012 786

Social Science Education Consortium, Inc.

ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education

Boulder, Colorado

1980

ORDERING INFORMATION

This publication is available from:

Social Science Education Consortium, Inc.
855 Broadway
Boulder, Colorado 80302

ISBN 0-89994-250-4

Price: $6.9

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS CATALOGING IN PUBLICATION DATA

Main entry under title:

Looking at... important topics in the social studies.

Includes bibliographical references.
1. Social sciences--Study and teaching--United States--Addresses, essays, lectures. I. Williams, Ann M., 1937-
H62.5.U5L66 300'.7'1073 80-22709
ISBN 0-89994-250-4

This publication was prepared with funding from the National Institute of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare under contract no. 400-78-0006. The opinions expressed in this report do not necessarily reflect the positions or policies of NIE or HEW.

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PREFACE

For the past several years, the ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education has published a series of occasional bulletins focused on specific topics of interest to social studies educators. Each issue in this *Looking At* series contains an interview with one or more leading educators and a bibliography of relevant resources. For some topics, ideas for classroom activities or other kinds of useful information were presented as well.

We selected 12 interviews from this series for reproduction in this anthology because we felt that their topics were still timely and that the comments of the educators were interviewed were still pertinent and valuable. Since as much as six years has passed since some of the interviews were conducted, we invited the interviewees to update their responses. Some made no revisions at all; in most cases the changes they made were few and minor. However, we chose not to use the accompanying bibliographies because we suspected that many of them would now be somewhat out of date. (One interviewee, Willa Baum, sent us a new bibliography, which we are happy to include.)

We are grateful to the interviewees for consenting to be interviewed in the first place and for permitting us to reprint their comments in this anthology. We hope that social studies educators who missed some or all of the bulletins in their original form will find this "Best of Looking At" collection to be worthwhile reading.

James E. Davis

Associate Director, Social Science Education Consortium

Associate Director, ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education

1. LOOKING AT . . . SCHOOL ETHNOGRAPHY

(An interview with Harry F. Wolcott)

Harry F. Wolcott, at that time a professor in the Departments of Educational Foundations and Anthropology at the University of Oregon and a research associate at the Center for Educational Management Policy, was interviewed in 1974 by Jill Hafner of the ERIC/ChESS staff. Dr. Wolcott is now professor of education and anthropology in the Division of Educational Policy and Management, College of Education, University of Oregon.

Introduction

Ethnography may be simply defined as descriptive anthropology. As an approach to research, ethnography refers to the set of field-work techniques that anthropologists use in order to construct an explicit statement of the "culture" of the people being studied.

Ethnography is an interesting and potentially useful tool for educators as well as anthropologists, and one that is receiving new and increasing attention from both professions. Anthropologist Harry Wolcott suggested a rationale for the application of the technique to schools when he stated in his interview with us that "what school people try to do makes good sense to school people but does not necessarily make sense in terms of the problems as seen by other constituencies."

He has referred in his writings to the ethnographer's job of making the "obvious" obvious, as he discovers the societal rules that are so self-evident to everyone in a culture that they are conformed to without question. By revealing those rules and habits, the anthropologist can enable educators to question and improve the institution and customs they have taken for granted.

The views of Harry F. Wolcott on the subject of school ethnography will provide the educator with an overview of the topic.

Interview

ERIC/ChESS: What is school ethnography, and what kinds of data emerge from such a study?

WOLCOTT: Any ethnography is a picture of the life of the members of some social group, seen in the context in which that life is lived. The ethnographic account ought to answer the question "What is going on here?" so that an outsider might, at least theoretically, be able to join the group and know how to act as one of its members. Perhaps more modestly, he would be able to understand how people in the group ordinarily act and believe.

One problem with "school ethnography" is that the researcher's own familiarity with school, resulting from having once been a student him or herself, can make the task more rather than less difficult. It's hard to put yourself in the position of a naive and interested learner if you feel that you already "know it all" or have strong convictions about what is right or wrong with formal education.

ERIC/ChESS: What conceptual frameworks are used in ethnographic study?

WOLCOTT: The cultural anthropologist's basic conceptual tool is *culture*. People learn and transmit ideas about the way things ought to be done so that each of us doesn't have to invent a new and totally unique life style to accomplish our every task and so that we can have an idea of what to expect from those around us.

Culture is like a grammar, providing us with a basic structure for guiding successful social interaction. To make so global a concept workable, we analyze it in terms of features commonly described in all societies--social organization, world view, economic organization, political organization, projective systems (e.g., mythology), material culture--the kinds of headings one finds in most introductory texts in cultural anthropology.

In my own work in the ethnography of schools, I'm paying particular attention to two facets through which I think anthropology can address the subject of formal education.[1] These are *social organization* and *world view*. It is quite clear, for instance, that not all educators share the same world view. Differences in the beliefs shared by classroom teachers and by nonteaching educators warrant very careful consideration and analysis.

ERIC/ChESS: Is it possible to confine such a study to the boundaries of the school?

WOLCOTT: The anthropologist normally takes a step back and asks what the school is a part of. He takes the holistic view that characterizes the anthropological perspective, not looking at the school as an isolated, self-contained little island, but as having a larger base in society.

In my study of the principal, I was looking at an occupational role; I think the study became more ethnographic when I also considered the cultural forces shaping that role rather than when I was only looking at how a principal interacts with faculty and parents or what he does supervising students and teachers.[2] I was (or, from a strictly ethnographic point of view, should have been) looking at a person who was a principal rather than a principal who happened to be a person.

ERIC/ChESS: Various disciplines are looking at the school as a social system. How would your objectives differ from those, say, of a sociologist?

WOLCOTT: There is a considerable overlap between what sociologists and anthropologists do. We draw upon similar techniques, look at people in human groups, read and criticize each other's studies and footnote them in our work, and face similar constraints working in formal education.

Some broad differences are that, in general, sociologists focus on population samples of large numbers of people. Sociological studies often include many schools or school districts. Anthropologists traditionally have inquired into small numbers of people who constitute an entire group, like a whole tribal society or a village group, and in their school studies typically look at one or a few individuals, a single school, or a particular event (like a strike) or period of time (like the social activities of a senior class).

Anthropologists get to know at least some of their subjects so well that they call them informants. Sociologists tend to focus on interaction settings, on groups rather than on individuals, on subsystems of complex societies, and on social problems, such as conflict resolution or professional autonomy.

Anthropologists are interested in what people say and think about what they do, as well as the behavior itself, and in the *ideational systems* people carry around about how things ought to be. The anthropologist depends on extensive on-site research over an extended period of time. Thus it is noted that anthropologists "do field work" while sociologists "gather data." Among other differences one always comes back to the anthropologist's interest in the holistic view, where many aspects of human life are woven together.

ERIC/ChESS: To what purposes can ethnographic data be put?

WOLCOTT: Let me suggest three different ways ethnographic data can be used. To borrow the analogy suggested by Clyde Kluckhohn's *Mirror for Man*, I think ethnographic data can provide careful description and cultural analysis of what is going on in a school. The description is there; whether people look in the "mirror," what they choose to see, and whether they make changes, probably ought to rest with the person looking into the mirror rather than with the person holding it.

Second, ethnographic data can be used to help educators with their problems--either with specific problems, such as intercultural education, community assessment, and program effectiveness, or with getting a new and broader perspective on what the problem is. Educators tend to look at most problems as having solutions in schools; anthropologists, by taking a step back, might often be able to point out that the school is sometimes part of the problem or, when it is part of the solution, it is only a small part and not necessarily the critical one. What school people try to do makes good sense to school people but does not necessarily make sense in terms of the problem as seen by other constituencies.

The third purpose is to contribute to our understanding of human behavior and, particularly, of human learning. I think that is the long-range goal.

ERIC/ChESS: What impact do you hope that anthropology, and ethnographic studies in particular, will have on the future of education?

WOLCOTT: Referring again to *Mirror for Man*, whether immediate changes can come about will probably depend on whether educators themselves can learn to use ethnographic data, find it useful, and live without someone telling them what to do. They are busy, action-oriented people and they don't always want to look in the mirror.[3]

At present more anthropologists are looking at the schools over a sustained period of time than ever before. What I hope will come of this current wave of anthropological attention to schools is data about *what really goes on* as opposed to what we would like to have go on.

We will turn our attention to looking at what happens in schools all day long rather than in some 60-second period when a child is doing a particular educational task of the kind that interests educational psychologists. We will pay more attention to unintended as well as to intended consequences of instruction, to the consequences of going to school at all, and to the variety of contexts in which we all learn rather than to the teacher's necessarily narrower focus of what is learned in the classroom. Also, we will give increasing attention to the relationship between language and learning.

Finally, we will appreciate the fact that we are all products of culture. What we do and say and how we organize our schools reflect beliefs shared among ourselves that are not shared by people in all times and places.

ERIC/ChESS: Do you know of any instances where students are doing ethnographic studies?

WOLCOTT: A number of high school teachers have been teaching anthropology by having their students act as proto-ethnographers.[4] Ethnography in their own schools conducted by students poses some of the methodological and ethical problems faced by the professional anthropologist: To whom do you show your materials? Who has a right to get inside a group, and under what kind of safeguards for both informants and researcher? Dare you share the information you are getting with the teacher? Can information be shared with "interested" administrators? This gets into some knotty problems inherent in social research.

When field work is not possible, teachers try to immerse their pupils in an ethnographic approach by presenting them with archaeological and ethnographic evidence and letting them "muck about" and look for ways to make sense out of the information confronting them. This approach characterized the Anthropological Curriculum Study Project materials developed for high schools and the *Man: A Course of Study* materials for intermediate grades. These materials were designed to teach anthropology by putting the student in the role of the anthropologist.

Epilogue

How can classroom teachers keep in touch with what professional anthropologists are doing? Harry Wolcott suggests that for a modest $12.00 teachers are welcome to join the Council on Anthropology and

Education (CAE). They should contact the American Anthropological Association, 1703 New Hampshire Ave., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009. As Wolcott states:

> The immediate benefits are two. First, they would receive the excellent *CAE Quarterly*; second, they would become part of the network of people sharing special interests through memberships in special committees.

In addition to papers and articles, the *CAE Quarterly* also carries a series on courses in anthropology and education at the university level, notes, announcements, professional news, and a bibliography of recent publications.

Notes

1. Harry F. Wolcott, *Teachers Versus Technocrats: An Educational Innovation in Anthropological Perspective* (Eugene, Ore.: Center for Educational Policy and Management, University of Oregon, 1977).

2. Harry F. Wolcott, *The Man in the Principal's Office: An Ethnography* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1973).

This idea is developed more fully in "Mirrors, Models and Monitors: Educator Adaptation," in George G. Spindler, ed., *Doing the Ethnography of Schooling* (forthcoming).

4. See, for example, Michael Feer, "Informant-Ethnographers in the Study of Schools," *Human Organization* 34, no. 2 (Summer 1975), pp. 157-162.

2. LOOKING AT . . . "PUBLIC DOUBLESPEAK"

(An interview with Daniel J. Dieterich)

Dan Dieterich teaches English at the University of Wisconsin--Stevens Point. When he was interviewed in 1975 by Karen Wiley, then ERIC/ChESS editor, he was chairman of the Committee on Public Doublespeak of the National Council of Teachers of English. That position is currently held by Professor William Lutz of the English Department at Rutgers, the State University of New Jersey.

Introduction

In 1971 the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) formed its Committee on Public Doublespeak with the passage of two resolutions:

> On Dishonest and Inhumane Uses of Language
>
> Resolved: That the National Council of Teachers of English find means to study dishonest and inhumane uses of language and literature by advertisers, to bring offenses to public attention, and to propose classroom techniques for preparing children to cope with commercial propaganda.
>
> On the Relation of Language to Public Policy
>
> Resolved: That the National Council of Teachers of English find means to study the relation of language to public policy, to keep track of, publicize, and combat semantic distortion by public officials, candidates for office, political commentators, and all those who transmit through the mass media.

One strategy adopted by the committee to "bring offenses to public attention" was the institution of the Annual Doublespeak Awards. An award winner in the category "misuse of euphemisms" was one Colonel Opfer of the U.S. Air Force, who told reporters in Cambodia, "You always write that it's bombing, bombing, bombing. It's *not* bombing! It's air support."

Obviously, social studies teachers as well as English teachers are concerned about honesty and clarity in communication, and this area lends itself particularly well to interdisciplinary efforts.

Interview

ERIC/ChESS: What exactly *is* "public doublespeak"--and what is *not* "public doublespeak?"

DIETERICH: Part of it is easy: "public" refers to communication through the mass media. Now, the hard part: what is "doublespeak?" According to the resolutions passed by NCTE, it is inhumane and dishonest use of language--deception, dishonesty, semantic distortion. All these are aspects of doublespeak, but I don't really think we have a decent definition for it yet.

I can say what doublespeak does not include. It's not the study of grammatical error, of diagramming, of word choice per se. It's not even really the study of euphemism, though euphemism can play a part in doublespeak, depending on context and situation. For instance, we are not out to say, "Euphemisms are bad so don't use them." Also, we're not trying to push an ethical schema on anybody. Rather, what we are trying to do when focusing on doublespeak is to analyze the way language relates to people and to society.

What we are saying is, "Here are some tools that people can use to analyze any group's language--to cut through it, to get down to the bare bones somehow, to see what's being done with that language."

ERIC/ChESS: Some critics of current language usage seem to be trying to put a straitjacket on the language. For instance, they criticize *all* uses of slang and neologisms, seemingly not wanting the language to change at all. Isn't that going too far?

DIETERICH: There is a diversity of opinions about language misuse. I don't go along with several people I have heard recently who say that there is one proper way of saying things and that anyone who varies is wrong. I am not trying to put that kind of straitjacket on people.

Some people are worried that the language is being hurt through such public misuses as improper grammar. I'm not too worried about the suffering that language is going through; I'm worried about the suffering that people are going through because of misuse of language.

I don't care if someone says "ain't." What I care about is the language technician--a communications expert--who spends six weeks constructing a 60-second message aimed at getting seven-year-old children to do something they wouldn't normally do, and the children don't even know why they do it or how to deal with the message they receive!

It is not a matter of sloppiness on the part of the communications expert; it is a matter of extreme finesse--that's my concern. The use of language is becoming more sophisticated; people are using it with much greater skill than ever before.

To answer your question then--what is fair game for the committee's criticism?--it is the misuse of public language to persuade individuals, as consumers or citizens, to make judgments on the basis of insufficient or incorrect information.

ERIC/ChESS: Why should anyone be concerned about misuse of language? Why shouldn't people be able to say whatever they want, however they want to say it?

DIETERICH: People can, do, and should be able to say whatever they want to say, however they want to say it. *But*, people should also be able to recognize and deal with the misuse of language. We use language in order to control our fellow human beings. I am out to give people the critical-thinking skills they need in order to recognize the ways in which they are being controlled. Then they can either accept the control or reject it, as they see fit. I'm not trying to tell people how they should talk--only how they should listen.

ERIC/ChESS: Searching for examples of public doublespeak can be a lot of fun and can give us some good chuckles. But aren't there some deeper issues involved?

DIETERICH: One of the prime issues is the public's right to know the truth about the people they elect to office. People have got to have *free access* to information in a democracy, but that isn't enough. They also have to be able to *analyze* the information they receive.

A second issue stems from our need as a capitalistic society to have access to information about the products we buy. We have to buy wisely and intelligently, but we don't. The reason we don't is that we can't. We can't because we don't have the tools to analyze the language that is being used on us. Not only verbal language, but the other symbol systems which are involved, such as color and music.

We don't know what's happening to us in a commercial. We say we don't listen to commercials, but in fact we do. And we make purchases based on commercials--otherwise industry wouldn't spend $26 billion a year making them!

ERIC/ChESS: What are the major analytic tools around which a course on doublespeak might be built?

DIETERICH: There are several tools, including the rhetorical, the general semantics, and the linguistic approaches.

Social studies teachers may be familiar with the traditional rhetorical approach. It is reflected in the Institute for Propaganda Analysis framework, which identifies seven techniques used in propaganda--"bandwagon," "glittering generalities," and so on.

Hugh Rank (a member of the committee) is trying to update this approach by developing a different set of analytic criteria. He has drawn up a four-part pattern. When people try to persuade others they tend to do one or more of four things: they tend to exaggerate their own good points, to exaggerate their opponents' bad points, to downplay their own bad points, and/or to downplay their opponents' good points. That is the basic framework. From that you get into the complexities. Some sections of Rank's approach are available from the committee.

The general semantics approach is founded on the theory that the relationship between language and reality is somewhat like the relationship between map and territory. When people begin mistaking the map for

the territory, they are in big trouble. All sorts of complexities are derived from that one little simile. S.I. Hayakawa's *Language in Thought and Action* describes this approach, and the International Society for General Semantics, based in San Francisco, distributes a number of other reading materials on it.

The linguistic method is an analysis of the way that language works in society. Julie Stanley, another member of the committee, has written several papers on this approach which are available through the committee. They analyze the way that linguistic construction can be used to hide meaning.

For instance, how do you make an unflattering statement about someone without taking the responsibility for having made it? Well, you can say, for instance, "This person seems to be dishonest." And what does "seems to be" mean? What it really means is "it seems *to me*," but "seems to be" diffuses the responsibility for the statement. The linguistic approach examines such aspects of language as syntax and word choice.

ERIC/ChESS: What are some learning activities that could be used by a teacher or team of teachers?

DIETERICH: One thing students and teachers could do is evaluate advertising. They can transcribe television or radio commercials or take ads out of magazines and newspapers and then see if they can find any positive claims in them: What is it that makes this product different from every other?

They will find out, not surprisingly, that usually there isn't anything that makes one product different from any other. When they do find a positive claim, they can sit down and test it themselves. Sometimes this will require a laboratory, but ordinarily a high school or college student would have no difficulty in verifying or disproving it without special equipment.

They could analyze sexist language. Again, they look at mass media and see the way that the sexes are referred to. Are they dealt with identically? Are different vocabularies used? What are the connotations of the different words used to describe men and women?

In a similar vein, they could analyze military language--not beginning with the assumption that the military is either good or bad but studying the particular and peculiar nature of military language. What is the subject matter of military language? Does that give us some indication of why military language is the way it is? The main thing, of course, in this area would be euphemism. What euphemisms are used? Why are they used? How are they used?

Another kind of activity would be studying the role of the Federal Communications Commission in regard to the mass media. What does it do? Who is on it? Whose interests do its members protect? These are just a few examples of learning activities.

Epilogue

The Committee on Public Doublespeak has a regularly published newsletter, offers a number of publications for teachers, and provides a variety of services, such as conducting workshops and suggesting speakers. It is housed at the headquarters for the National Council of Teachers of English (wherein is also housed the ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills). For more information, write to the committee at 1111 Kenyon Road, Urbana, Illinois 61801.

The following learning strategies can also be used effectively to help students identify examples of public doublespeak:

Cartoons

Political and editorial cartoons frequently illustrate the gap between a doublespeak statement and more accurate reality. Often this is done by showing the situation graphically from the point of view of the person or groups who are *acted upon*, while making part or all of the caption be the doublespeak statement--the statement of the person who is the *actor*. For example, a cartoon entitled "Urban Renewal = Negro Removal" shows large numbers of blacks being carried off in pickup trucks to make way for the wrecking crews.

Select several editorial cartoons to illustrate this technique, then instruct the students to search for more examples of how doublespeak can be deflated through cartoons. Discuss what purposes or points of emphasis can be served by a choice of a particular language style. Why would one person prefer to use doublespeak and another the more graphic language or representation? Are powerful or powerless people more likely to use doublespeak? What motives does the cartoonist have in exposing the dichotomy between the two different messages?

Charades

Collect three or four examples of doublespeak and select several students to act them out as charades for the rest of the class to figure out. Make sure the students you have selected know what the example really does mean. Probably it will be very difficult for the guessing students to figure out the actual quotations or statements, and they will complain that the game of charades should not be that difficult. After the charades have been performed, debrief the experience. Discuss with the students why it was so hard to figure out the charades. Was it because the words are almost meaningless, or quite widely separated from the actions they really imply?

3. LOOKING AT . . . ORAL HISTORY

(An interview with Willa K. Baum)

Willa K. Baum is head of the Regional Oral History Office at Bancroft Library, University of California at Berkeley. The Regional Oral History Office is concerned with the collection and preservation of reminiscences of persons who have made important contributions to the development of the West. Mrs. Baum was interviewed in 1975 by Bonny Cochran, then an SSEC teacher associate on leave from her teaching position at Bethesda-Chevy Chase (Maryland) High School.

Introduction

Although oral history is probably as old as mankind, its use in the classroom is fairly recent. If the cheap cassette tape recorder is the medium, the current concern with heritage, ethnicity, and self-identity is the catalyst. The message, a richer and more-representative social history, will be used in the future by a wide variety of researchers.

The most immediate and obvious application of the method is in the precollegiate study of local history. But, as Mrs. Baum points out in the following interview, students gain much more than subject-matter mastery from the use of the technique. Social skills and a concern for social action are almost inevitable results.

Interview

ERIC/ChESS: What is oral history?

BAUM: Oral history is a method of collecting historical information. I'd like to emphasize the word *method* because oral history isn't a subject field. The method includes planned-in-advance, tape-recorded interviews with someone who has first-hand knowledge of an event or a way of life that's of some historical interest. It is *not* random conversation tape recorded. The interviewer and interviewee know that they're going to be tape recorded as they talk about something for historical preservation, and they aren't just chatting.

People have asked, "Arent't the Nixon tapes oral history?" I'd certainly agree that they are history and that they were tape recorded, but they are not oral history. They were not planned; the speakers had no knowledge that their conversations were going to be preserved.

ERIC/ChESS: How does *oral* history fit into *local* history?

BAUM: I think a lot of people combine the idea of oral history with local history. Local history is the subject--what you're studying--and oral history is the method. They go together very well--ideally, I think, for the elementary or secondary school level. Local history can be broken down into such subfields as local agricultural history and women's history. Oral history is especially appropriate to that newest subdiscipline, family history.

ERIC/ChESS: What makes a good oral history interview?

BAUM: Well, the first requirement is planning a reasonable project. What historically relevant subjects can you find out about from narrators--the persons interviewed? What questions should be asked? How should they be asked?

The next requirement is that you select suitable narrators--persons who have a reason to know about the subject of the interview. In other words, don't ask somebody who was a factory worker about early farm practices.

Third, the interviewer should have some knowledge of the subject of the interview--that means prior research--so he or she can keep the interview going with intelligent questions.

Further requisites are that you have a tape recorder and know how to use it, that you have permission to use the information gained from the interview, and that you have some idea of what you are going to do with it.

The last point is particularly important. If you just go out and interview zillions of people for fun without any idea of ever doing anything with the data, you are not doing good oral history. Also, I think, students like to do something that is useful, not just make-work.

ERIC/ChESS: What sorts of things could students do with the results of their interviewing?

BAUM: Well, the class could put together group or individual reports. If they have taken a local-history subject, the chances are that there is no other information on what they've tried to find out and that their report will be a valuable addition to the historical information about their community.

If their tapes are good--and the teacher needs to be quite selective--the tapes can be deposited in the local library or with the local historical society. It really gives a lift to the whole program if students and narrators know that the good tapes will be selected for permanent preservation.

Students can also put on an exhibit. They can gather photographs and objects and put together excerpts from the interviews. They can develop a media show with slides and tape excerpts from transcripts. All of these things require a certain amount of technical skill in handling tapes, photographs, and print, but I think secondary-school students are very skillful at this.

ERIC/ChESS: Do you think there are good reasons to include oral history in the high school curriculum?

BAUM: Yes, there are many good reasons. Much depends on doing it well, of course, but I think that it is an effective way of turning students on to the fun of learning.

Oral history has been used in both urban and rural environments. In both settings, students who certainly are not interested in history and possibly not interested in reading and writing become interested in these things via oral history. You can catch students with their interest in the tape recorder. In taping their interviews, the students begin to relate themselves to the subject that they are studying, they begin to learn how to listen to people, and so on. In very small steps they begin to relate themselves back one generation or two generations and eventually begin to recognize themselves as part of the ongoing movement of humanity, which I think is part of the purpose of education.

ERIC/ChESS: You mentioned a specific skill--listening--that can be learned through oral history. Are there other skills?

BAUM: First, I think the method of oral history teaches students a way of finding out about something, anything--a way of doing research, let's say. To prepare oneself for an interview, you have to learn something about the use of the library and also about looking at pictures, newspapers, and such. So students learn some of the skills of library-type research.

But they also learn to *go and ask people* for information. One of the things that we have found here in our office is that our graduate students are excellent at doing library research and using manuscripts; they will come in and use our transcripts and even our tapes. But they are appalled when we suggest that they should just go out and ask a person for information we don't have on our tapes or transcripts.

If high school students can learn to go out and question people to find out about something, that is an important thing to learn, even if it isn't history that they are asking about. Not only can they learn the value of oral questioning, they can develop their skills in asking questions. And questioning is a social skill that is valuable in whatever you are going to do.

Another reason to include oral history in the high school is that it will help students gain an understanding and an appreciation of the older generation. It strikes me that many young people have never taken the time to listen to an older person--and vice versa. Young people and older people often find that they don't take time just to sit and talk. The oral interview requires them to do that.

I think that the older and younger generations can learn to talk to each other through oral history. If students go to the step beyond the interviewing and listen to the tapes carefully, or if they go through the painstaking process of transcribing, they will begin to get a feel for language and understanding of how words are put together and what kind of communication is effective.

Further, they certainly can learn spelling and punctuation if they go that transcribing step. In that regard, I think that oral history can be used in typing classes. This would be a secondary use, but the typing classes might be plugged into the oral history program to help provide transcripts of the tapes.

Also, students can develop organizing skills. The interview should be organized first for the kinds of questions to ask. The questions must be put into a reasonable order--an outline. As all teachers know, teaching students to outline is very difficult. Yet to prepare a good oral history interview is simply to outline. Afterward, the transcripts should be organized for some kind of final report.

ERIC/ChESS: Does oral history yield a different kind of information from that traditionally available to high school students?

BAUM: It doesn't necessarily yield more than the use of diaries, letters, and other personal materials that have been used in history. But in oral history you begin to get the emotional content in the voice tones and in the way people describe things and tell what these things meant to them.

I think that oral history introduces high school students to the way history affects a person's life. Also, there are many groups of people who haven't ever been documented because they weren't quite in the mainstream of history. Those groups are especially valuable for students to do oral history with because the tapes the students collect actually add important new information to the field.

Epilogue

Getting Started

One technique for getting students started on an oral history project is to play excerpts from Studs Terkel's record "Hard Times" (Caedmon Records). If you also have them read transcriptions of the interviews as they are listening, they seem to develop a sensitivity to oral history quickly. Have them jot down notes as they read and listen, and then break the class into six or seven groups. Have each group decide which interviews produced the best information. Then have each group develop three or four questions they would ask if they had been doing the interview. Discuss these with the class as a whole.

Willa Baum's Guidelines for Using Oral History

1. Oral history, like any field work, requires a lot of personal guidance if it is going to be a valuable educational experience for students. This guidance can come from school volunteers and teaching

aides as well as from the teacher. Experienced students can help inexperienced ones, too.

2. The focus of the work of the class should be on one topic. Much of the value of the technique comes from students sharing their research and cooperatively evaluating the information they have obtained.

3. It is necessary to prepare carefully before starting the interviewing, although the class should not spend so much time on this that the students lose interest before the interviewing begins. One aspect of preparation is "boning up" on background information. Both teacher and students should bring in primary-source materials, such as old newspapaers, wills, diaries, photo albums, and scrapbooks--things that will help students develop a more immediate feeling for the past than reading textbooks will.

4. Another aspect of preparation is practicing interviewing techniques and using the equipment. The equipment should be very simple. Practice can be brief. Students might interview each other or members of their families and then discuss which techniques were successful and which were not.

5. Even though many students will be able to come up with appropriate narrators on their own, the teacher should be prepared to help find narrators. (This means, too, that the topic chosen should be one for which suitable narrators are available.)

6. It is important for the teacher to see that the appointment for the interview is made through an official source. Students should not be solely responsible for explaining the project and should not have to risk being turned down just because they are adolescents. A printed explanation of the project on school stationery is helpful.

7. Students should go out in teams of two or three. One of the team members might be more experienced, perhaps a student from the previous year's course. The teacher probably shouldn't go along with secondary students--they should be allowed to sink or swim on their own. With elementary students, it's a different matter, though.

8. Students should be required to do two separate interviews so they can profit in the second from what they learned in the first. The first one should be "debriefed" before they go out to do the second.

9. Each student should summarize his or her own findings from the experience: what he or she learned personally from the experience, what he or she found out about the subject matter, how the findings fit into the broader perspective of the topic that the class as a whole has been working on.

10. The tapes should be evaluated when they are completed, not simply filed or put away. There should always be some sort of planned finale--a little publication of excerpts, an exhibit or multimedia presentation for the local historical society, a party with the narrators as guests.

Keeping Track

You'll want to develop some sort of cataloging system for keeping track of the interview tapes. The form on the next page is the one used by the Bancroft Library at the University of California.

MODEL CATALOGUE FORM*

General topic of interview_____

Date_____ Place_____ Length_____

Personal data:

Narrator

Name_____

Address_____

_____

Name, address of relative, friend

_____

Birthplace_____

Birthdate_____

Occupation(s)_____

_____

_____

Interview Data:

Side 1

Side 2

Estimated time on tape:

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Interviewer

Name_____

Address_____

_____

Relationship to narrator (co-worker, neighbor, etc.)_____

_____

Length of acquaintance_____

What was the occasion of the interview?_____

_____

Subjects covered, in approximate order (please spell out names of persons and places mentioned):

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Use back of sheet if needed.

*reprinted by permission

The Oral Approach to Teaching U.S. History

Oral history can be used appropriately in a traditional American history course offering. Prohibition, the Great Depression, the home front during World War II, and the peace movement are popular topics. Differences in the experiences of persons who lived in different areas of the country at the time, their social and economic statuses, their ethnic backgrounds--all of these provide excellent data for students to analyze before drawing conclusions about how one ought to accept the standard textbook coverage of an event. Some more recent events also led themselves to this technique. Students might:

--Collect interviews with veterans of the Vietnam War. Develop a retrieval chart which will show differences in experience, length of service, attitudes toward the conflict, acceptance of the treaty terms. Caution students about drawing conclusions from insufficient data, but allow them to analyze the tapes and charts for trends. The Korean conflict might be studied in the same manner.

--Develop a perspective on the energy crisis, pollution, or population growth. Interview older members of the community concerning their views now and their recollections as to the importance of these national problems in the past.

--Analyze the impact of Watergate on the local political scene. Interview many members of different groups to see how their perceptions of that chain of events correlate with what they read or heard from the national news media. Have students compare this with the textbook presentation.

Summary Presentations

Simply sitting and listening to tapes can be dull. Suggest to students that they liven up the presentation of their tapes with a multimedia approach. Here are some examples:

--Choose one topic of local concern, i.e., mine safety, and develop an edited tape on which several men describe the various equipment which has been developed during the mine's existence. Exhibit the equipment that is being described. This many have to be done through photographs.

--Synchronize slides made from old photographs with comments made by eyewitnesses to some important local event--the day the courthouse burned down, for example.

--Edit a tape of several people describing how an artifact was made. Examples include soap, quilts, horseshoes, water witch rods. Pass samples of the items around the classroom as the tape is being played.

--Build scale models of some monument in the local area. Have "old timers" describe why it was built, how it was funded, and what kinds of controversies arose concerning it. (There are always controversies and these add spice.)

--Make a movie of the history of the school. Have the oldest living graduates do the narration. Be sure that they are interviewed before the script is written, so that their reminiscences become the focal point.

Resources for Using Oral History

Archive Approach to Oral History, An, by David Lance (1978). Imperial War Museum, Lambeth Road, London SE 6HZ, England ($4.50).

Bibliography on Oral History, rev. ed., compiled by Manfred Waserman (1975). Oral History Association, P.O. Box 13734, Denton, Texas 76203 ($3.00).

Guide to Aural History Research, A, edited by W.J. Langlois (1976). Provincial Archives of British Columbia, Victoria, B.C., Canada V8V IX4 ($1.00).

Manual for Fieldworkers, A, by Edward D. Ives (1974). Northeast Folklore Society, University of Maine, Orono, Maine 04473 ($3.00).

Oral History for the Local Historical Society, by Willa K. Baum (1971). American Association for State and Local History, 1400 Eighth Ave. So., Nashville, Tennessee 37203 ($3.50).

Oral History: From Tape to Type, by Cullom Davis, Kathryn Back, and Kay Maclean (1977). American Library Association, 50 E. Huron St., Chicago, Illinois 60611 ($8.95).

Oral History Primer, An, by Gary L. Shumway and William G. Hartley (1973). Primer Publications, P.O. Box 11894, Salt Lake City, Utah 84147 ($1.95).

Tape-Recording Local History, rev. ed., by William G. Tyrrell (1973). Technical Leaflet #35. American Association for State and Local History, 1400 Eighth Ave. So., Nashville, Tennessee 37203 ($0.50).

Transcribing and Editing Oral History, by Willa K. Baum (1977). American Association for State and Local History, 1400 Eighth Ave. So., Nashville, Tennessee 37203 ($6.95).

4. LOOKING AT . . . READING IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

(An interview with John P. Lunstrum)

John P. Lunstrum is a professor of education at Florida State University. As staff clinician for the FSU Reading Clinic, he teaches graduate courses in the diagnosis and remediation of reading difficulties and supervises the work of clinician interns. Dr. Lunstrum is now in the process of developing and testing a model for integrating basic reading and language skills into social studies content. He was interviewed in 1976 by Nancy Dille of the ERIC/ChESS staff.

Introduction

Within the last decade, there has been increased emphasis and interest in teaching reading in the context of various content areas. Dr. John P. Lunstrum is especially interested in teaching reading skills in the social studies. His preliminary analysis of research in that area appeared in the January 1976 issue of *Social Education*, and he is coauthor (with Bob Taylor) of *Teaching Reading in the Social Studies*, published jointly by SSEC, ERIC/ChESS, and the International Reading Association. His comments should be of interest to all teachers who want to improve their students' reading skills while dealing with social studies content.

Interview

ERIC/ChESS: What should be the basic direction or orientation of reading instruction in the social studies?

LUNSTRUM: In general, I favor a content-centered or functional approach. By that I mean that the K-12 social studies teacher would introduce and develop reading strategies and skills while teaching a given course. This way the teacher can assess the reading performance of students with reference to the materials being used and can design appropriate strategies for facilitating content comprehension without a major reorientation of the regular classroom procedure.

ERIC/ChESS: Then, do you feel that it is not only the responsibility of elementary teachers to teach reading skills, but that of secondary social studies teachers as well?

LUNSTRUM: Secondary social studies teachers simply cannot escape this responsibility. Content skills and expectations of the social studies make it necessary for pupils to process print media efficiently, read and comprehend basic issues, and grasp new concepts.

ERIC/ChESS: Should every social studies teacher teach reading, or only those teachers with students whose reading level is below average?

LUNSTRUM: Every teacher, in my judgment, should be teaching reading skills when dealing with content. Unfortunately, many competent students develop inefficient reading habits in the absence of reading instruction and thus never realize their potential. When concentrating on disabled readers, we often fail to challenge capable students to read critically and creatively.

ERIC/ChESS: Can reading be taught with existing classroom resources, or does a teacher need special materials?

LUNSTRUM: That depends on what reading skills the teacher wishes to develop. The materials currently being used in a classroom can be appropriate for emphasizing certain skills: using context aids in word recognition, using structural analysis for vocabulary development, etc. But if the materials are too difficult for most students, the teacher must restructure the materials or introduce other materials and strategies more suitable to the students' interests and reading abilities.

ERIC/ChESS: How can a teacher with a heterogeneous class use/adapt materials that are too sophisticated for some students? Or should different materials for each reading level of the students be used?

LUNSTRUM: There is no simple, tested solution to this common problem; however, some approaches have been used successfully. One is a flexible grouping arrangement in the classroom on the basis of student achievement or interest. Assignments or tasks are differentiated according to particular reading skill levels that are required.

For example, the teacher can prepare reading-study guides on certain topics, using Harold Herber's model of three levels of comprehension: literal, interpretive, and applied (see Herber, *Teaching Reading in Content Areas*, 2nd ed.; Prentice-Hall, 1978). Students with minimal reading skills are encouraged to first complete those tasks requiring literal comprehension or recall of basic information. Then they move to the interpretive level as their reading skills improve, and draw inferences from the material.

Another approach is to allow for individualization with self-pacing units or "contracts." Learning centers can be set up to create student interest in certain activities that relate to topics studied in the materials. Students would clarify concepts introduced in a text through media tools like slides and cassettes. Graphic overviews of topics are presented, and difficult vocabulary is identified, explained, and used

in similar context. Also, basic study and locational skills are taught--how to use the text, maps, photos, time lines, and library. Media are used extensively to clarify ideas and stimulate student interest.

ERIC/ChESS: How can a teacher judge the reading level of materials?

LUNSTRUM: A teacher can make an informal but fairly reliable assessment in several ways. A group-reading inventory could be designed and administered. Students would silently read selected passages and then discuss literal and interpretative questions about them. Another way is to allow some pupils to read aloud selected passages and then have the class respond to questions about the readings.

ERIC/ChESS: Are readability formulas useful?

LUNSTRUM: Some formulas are fairly easy to apply and adequately indicate the reading-difficulty level. These are probably better predictors of reading levels of materials than teacher judgments.

ERIC/ChESS: What problems are involved when using a readability formula?

LUNSTRUM: They do not reflect concept load or density, nor do they provide sufficient instruction for rewriting materials in order to facilitate student comprehension. I recommend using a systematic deletion process called "cloze" or its modification, called "maze." Cloze is more sensitive to concept load, and its use in assessing student ability to comprehend materials is fairly established in research literature.

ERIC/ChESS: How can a social studies teacher find out whether to use a formula?

LUNSTRUM: Some International Reading Association (IRA) publications contain articles that address the needs of content teachers, particularly the *Journal of Reading* for the secondary grade levels and the *Reading Teacher* for the elementary levels. Some useful papers from IRA conferences are located in ERIC. In addition, some professional social studies journals--especially *Social Education*--have included articles about teaching reading.

ERIC/ChESS: There seems to be concern that some social studies materials are too sophisticated for use by students of the intended grade levels. What should teachers look for with respect to the reading level of such materials?

LUNSTRUM: While a textbook's reading level, or levels within it, can predict a measure of difficulty, I suggest looking particularly at its conceptual structure and instructional strategies. Student comprehension is facilitated by clear explanations of significant, relevant concepts presented in a structured, systematic manner.

ERIC/ChESS: Is a special classroom climate needed for maintaining student interest while teaching reading?

LUNSTRUM: Yes. I believe a climate which supports reading in social studies classrooms can be established by incorporating certain elements into teaching.

ERIC/ChESS: What elements do you suggest for establishing that climate?

LUNSTRUM: Some of the following are helpful: (1) select content materials in which concepts are adequately clarified; (2) use inquiry about controversial issues to show relevance of reading tasks; (3) use discovery and game tactics to clarify concepts and generate reasoning processes; (4) provide students the opportunity to clarify their values and develop interpersonal skills; and (5) introduce content that has an intrinsic interest or appeal to the students. For example, the instructor could use music which reflects social and historical concerns, audio- or videotapes of controversial radio and TV broadcasts, newspaper interpretations of national and local news, or folktales that reflect societal values and norms.

ERIC/ChESS: Should a social studies teacher use student materials that deal with propaganda and prejudice?

LUNSTRUM: I think it is difficult and unwise to avoid such materials. In a pluralistic, democratic society propaganda and prejudice are inevitable in some form, particularly in the mass media. It follows, I believe, that we should help students develop criteria for evaluating what they hear, see, and read. This involves sensitizing students to their own values and attitudes which affect their perceptions of words and events.

Epilogue

Readability formulas first started appearing as early as the 1920s and gained in popularity in the late '40s and '50s. Reading specialists at first considered the new formulas to be a solution for all reading problems. Although that view has since been tempered, readability formulas are still widely discussed and used.

Essentially, readability formulas attempt to measure the reading ease of material by evaluating elements of language--most often, vocabulary difficulty, sentence complexity, and interest value of words. In using most formulas, an evaluator first scores the individual language factors according to specified directions and then puts the separate scores into some sort of mathematical formula which yields a reading grade level. The end product of a readability formulas is usually a grade-level score.

About 30 formulas are in existence, and there are many variations of each. The following three formulas are used most often and are probably most familiar to educators:

Dale-Chall Formula. Edgar Dale and Jeanne Chall first presented their formula in 1948. Since that time it has become a popular and widely used formula. The formula itself is very thorough and extensive, yielding a fairly accurate grade level. However, it is more complicated and time consuming than most other formulas.

The Dale-Chall formula makes use of a 3,000-word list which measures vocabulary load. Using the material which is to be evaluated, the investigator counts the number of words in sentences, counts the number of words not on the 3,000-word list, and fits those figures into the formula from which a specific grade level is produced.

Fry Readability Graph. Edward Fry proposed his readability graph in 1965. It is now extensively used by classroom teachers. Classroom instructors find it a useful tool because it takes less time to use and is less complex. It involves selecting three 100-word passages from various parts of the material, counting the number of sentences in each passage, and counting the number of syllables in each passage. The average number of words per sentence and average number of syllables are computed and then plotted on Fry's graph which determines the grade levels of the passages.

Cloze Procedure. In 1953 Wilson Taylor developed the cloze procedure. This procedure has increased in popularity in the past few years. Using this method, the evaluator takes the material in question and deletes every fifth word. The student is then asked to complete the passage by determining the exact word which was deleted and replacing it. Minor misspellings are considered as correct answers. The percentage of items correctly "clozed" by the students is compared with a criterion scale to determine if the material is of an appropriate level for the students. Only functional reading levels are determined, not grade levels.

This procedure is used to measure concept or idea density. Because of this, it is generally recommended that the cloze procedure rather than a formula be used with social studies materials. Normally, cloze is used for secondary materials and its modified version, "maze," is used for elementary materials.

5. LOOKING AT . . . "BACK TO BASICS"

(Interviews with George Weber, Richard Suchman, and Howard Mehlinger)

In 1976 ERIC/ChESS staff members Don English and James E. Davis conducted the interviews that follow with George Weber, then associate director of the Council for Basic Education; Richard Suchman, then senior staff scientist at the Human Resources Research Organization (HumRRO); and Howard Mehlinger, director of the Social Studies Development Center at Indiana University.

Introduction

In 1976 the question of whether education should revert "back to the basics" was a very hot issue. Educators were feeling a lot of pressure--both from parents and taxpayers and from within their own profession--to abandon what such critics saw as "frills" and focus instead on traditional subject areas, primarily reading, writing, and arithmetic. Some of the reasons cited for going "back to the basics" were educational in nature: declining scores on standardized tests, the need to cut school budgets, the inability of students to read and write effectively. Other reasons, perhaps not explicitly stated nor even recognized, probably reflected social, sociological, and political concerns and motivations. Compounding the confusion was, and is, the difficulty of defining the "basics."

In an attempt to find out what "back to basics" issues meant for social studies educators, we interviewed three prominent educators with interest and expertise in the subject.

Interviews

George Weber

ERIC/ChESS: What is the "back to basics" movement?

WEBER: The "back to basics" movement is a general movement toward what the public sees as getting back to some of the more fundamental aspects of education. It involves a reexamination of what the schools have been doing.

I think many people see it as getting rid of some things that they don't think are important, and tightening up from a procedural point of view. They have the notion that it's not simply a matter of three Rs. On the content side, it involves a reemphasis on fundamental skills and knowledge, and also an emphasis on determining whether children and young people are actually achieving something. We're now in a position with the national assessment and other assessment devices to actually know how much the students are learning, and some of the information coming out of these assessments disturbs the public--I think justifiably.

ERIC/ChESS: Why is it growing in popularity?

WEBER: I think part of it is a social reexamination we're having in many fields in the wake of Vietnam and the Watergate experience. I think we're having this kind of reexamination not only in education, but also in fields such as politics, government, foreign affairs, higher education, and the whole ethical structure of our society. But I think there are some specific reasons in connection with schools.

One is the rising costs in schools. As the public puts more money in education, and it has in recent years even after adjustments for inflation, there's a natural tendency to be more interested in what this money is buying.

Another reason, I think, is the information the public has been getting from the outcomes of schools in the last five or ten years with national and state assessments. It has been unpleasant, to a great extent. I think *greater flow* of information has been one of the causes.

Another cause has been deteriorating discipline in many schools. Rightly or wrongly, much of the public associates a rise in school misbehavior and violence with poor academic achievement and less structured programs.

A final cause is disillusionment with many of the recent educational innovations. We've been through a period of 10 or 15 years in which the schools have tried out a number of new things, from open-space schools that look like Grand Central Station (which are now being closed up right and left) to "new math" (and computational skills at the elementary level have suffered considerably). When you conclude that a number of these innovations not only didn't deliver what they promised but maybe even left us worse off than we were before, there is a natural tendency for the public to say, "Well, look, we've been conned."

ERIC/ChESS: What is the current role of the Council for Basic Education in the movement, and what are some of your activities?

WEBER: The purpose of our organization is to do what we can in our small way to try to improve elementary and secondary education along the philosophy known as basic education, a term which our founders invented.

It just happens that basic education has a semantic linkage with the "back to basics" movement. The role of our organization in the current movement is the role we take with respect to all developments in elementary and secondary education: we comment on it and disseminate

information about it. We're one of the sources of information about the "back to basics" movement because we have followed it quite carefully and think that on the whole it's probably a good thing, although we certainly don't agree with some of its manifestations. The Council is a national, independent membership organization with members in all 50 states. We publish bulletins and occasional papers. We sponsor books, answer inquiries, and do a certain amount of public speaking. We also do a limited amount of work directly with school systems.

ERIC/ChESS: What does the "back to basics" movement mean for the current social studies curriculum?

WEBER: First, I would like to say that "back to basics" did not start in the social studies field. What this means is that the implications of the "back to basics" movement for the current social studies curricula will be found in the nature of by-products, rather than direct results. The "back to basics" movement has concentrated on language and mathematical basic skills. Things like discipline and (unfortunately, we think) some ideas about patriotism, religion, and dress codes are also part of the movement.

The "back to basics" people are asking "What do we really want children and young people to learn in the social studies field?" The answer is going to be basic facts, knowledge, understandings, and, for older students, economics. In recent years we have had so much emphasis on opinion, broad concept development, and allegedly practical application courses. We have courses on all kinds of things under the general umbrella of social studies. But, are they really learning these things?

ERIC/ChESS: What do you see wrong with the way social studies is currently taught in elementary and secondary schools? How does the "back to basics" approach rectify this situation?

WEBER: One of the things that is wrong, from our point of view, in the way social studies is currently taught in elementary schools is the amalgamation and the vagueness of programs. Social studies in the elementary schools is not in very good shape, in our opinion, because of lack of emphasis on content knowledge. You can very easily get involved in attempts to teach concepts and processes and wind up having high schoolers who don't know what war to associate with Woodrow Wilson.

The problem in secondary schools is characteristic of many fields, not just social studies: the most able students are getting very good programs in many of our high schools; however, the average and below-average students are being greatly short-changed by watered-down courses. In high school, below-average social studies students are getting low-quality content taught to a lackadaisical standard. The idea is to keep them quiet and entertained with tremendous amount of audiovisual materials. There are also too many electives.

I think the "back to basics" approach will tend to rectify this situation if it results in a reexamination of what the public wants the schools to accomplish in this field and an examination of whether they are actually accomplishing it. Some of the "back to basics" advocates and activists are quite interested in conservative political beliefs and patriotism, which may have considerable impact on social studies.

ERIC/ChESS: Is citizenship development one of the overall goals of the "back to basics" movement? If it is, how and why does the "back to basics" social studies program develop the necessary skills and knowledge to reach this objective?

WEBER: Fundamentally, the educational philosophy that the Council advocates is that education is for the intellectual development of the individual, not for the purposes of the state. You find a great many social studies people who argue that the purpose of social studies education is to develop citizens who will vote and participate in government. The question is, who says so? That's using individuals as creatures of the state, whereas we think that well-educated people will be better citizens because it's their education that makes them better citizens. If you start out by saying, "Let's make these people good citizens," then you have a program not of education but of indoctrination. A free society doesn't ask if education can build a new social order. We are for a sound education, which we regard in terms of individual development, not social purpose.

One of the problems in social science and social studies education is that social studies educators themselves can't decide what it is that they want to create in the way of a good citizen.

ERIC/ChESS: In general, how does the "back to basics" social studies program deal with value issues and dilemmas in the social studies?

WEBER: I think many of the people interested in "back to basics" are interested more in indoctrination, and this is where we would disagree with them. However, we do agree with their interest in a more even-handed accurate portrayal of American history and society. I think many of our schools do all right here, but there are individual cases of materials, teachers, and schools that are overemphasizing the negative.

I think part of the "back to basics" movement is to quit telling our kids that America is an evil country. I would not say that this is typical, but you certainly can find a great deal of unfairly negative material in social studies materials today. You have treatments of whole subjects, whether it's the economic system or the political system, with all of their faults outlined in living color. There is nary a mention of the strengths of our country or reasonable comparisons of our system, with all its advantages and disadvantages, with other systems in the world.

ERIC/ChESS: Is there any research which indicates that "back to basics" school programs have increased student scores on the national standardized assessment tests?

WEBER: Yes. The research that has come in so far shows that student achievement, on the basis of the standardized achievement tests, has improved substantially at the elementary level in the fields of reading, language arts, and mathematics. This is true in Pasadena, Jefferson County, and Charlotte-Mecklenburg. In Charlotte-Mecklenburg the fundamental elementary school students did considerably better than the open-classroom students.

ERIC/ChESS: What do you see as the future for this movement?

WEBER: I think there is quite a good future for the "back to basics" movement as a whole, broadly defined. I think that a new factor that will keep this tendency going longer than just another swing of the pendulum is that we're getting more information about the outcomes of education today than we ever did before. As long as that information makes the public unhappy, I think there will be a continued emphasis on fundamental aspects of education.

As for alternative "back to basics" schools, I think there is a very limited future for that movement for a large number of reasons. Fundamental schools are technically difficult to set up and sustain. There are also a number of legal questions that have not been ironed out. I think there are very few school districts that will get alternative "back to basics" schools.

Richard Suchman

ERIC/ChESS: What is your definition of "back to basics"?

SUCHMAN: I have heard of the expression, and I regard it as another slogan. Slogans tend to persuade people to a particular way of thinking. They appeal to emotion rather than reason, to action without reflection.

"Back to basics" says three things: First, it says, "Let's go back to the old things that we grew up with that made us comfortable." I was at the University of Illinois when Arthur Bestor started the Council on Basic Education. I recall that enthusiasts for the notion felt that the old days were better. This is not unlike the feelings of conservatives in areas other than education who say that the old things are better. It is understandable. Problems are pretty complicated today. Perhaps life is a little threatening to some people, and they long for the days when it seemed less threatening.

Second, the "back to basics" proponents are saying that the things they learned in school--the three Rs--are things you can sink your teeth into, that we are getting away from this important subject matter in school today. Reading, writing, adding, and subtracting was the basic content when they were young, and nobody questioned it. Why should that be questioned now? A great many young people today don't read or write very well. This adds ammunition to "back to basics" where subject matter is concerned.

Third, "back to basics" is seen as a return to older educational methods: teacher control over the learner, hard work and obedience, and dedication to "success" as defined by the teachers. The "back to basics" advocates seem to be saying that the way to go ahead is to go backward! Impossible! We are evolving forward and will continue to do so, like it or not.

I would propose a different goal--*getting through* to basics, eschewing slogans and asking ourselves where we would like to be heading. In this way we can deal with the fears people have about education today.

ERIC/ChESS: What do you mean by fears?

SUCHMAN: Conservatives fear change. They try to keep the world as it is, to hold back change. They fear that things will go roaring past and leave them behind. There is also a fear of having to change one's self. If things around you are changing at a very rapid rate, then you feel obligated to get with it.

"Back to basics" says, "The old things were valid in the past; keep them valid so we don't have disruption." "Back to basics" equates change with chaos. Possibly this is because change produces a chaotic feeling in those who are not changing--those who are not growing themselves.

I'm not suggesting that all change is good for change's sake. But there must be an alternative to the notion of a blind return to the past. Are they running *to* something or *away from* something? I think it is more the latter--fear of change.

ERIC/ChESS: Do you have any examples?

SUCHMAN: I think there is fear of the beast in man. Maybe that is too strong a statement. Perhaps I should say fear of permitting people to have options, to make choices, to be freer than they have been. There is an underlying fear that if you are permissive (the term has recently taken on a pejorative tone), you are opening the door to undisciplined behavior. That is, you are bringing up people to disrespect the laws and authority. This is an extreme overreaction.

Admittedly, the open-education movement ran pell-mell into a destructuring process that the kids and the teachers were completely unable to handle. They were over their heads before they knew it. There is no question that structure is a necessary element in all societal efforts, certainly in the process of education. To suddenly remove all structure is insane. But to turn around and say that the only alternative is a highly structured, highly controlled kind of learning experience is just as ridiculous.

Another kind of fear is that of a breakdown in the quality of education. It is a fear that kids will not learn to do the things that they used to be able to do. I think it boils down to something as simple as this--kids used to be able to read better and faster and more than they do now. We want to return to a state of affairs where kids are better and more prolific readers.

I see fear of another kind. This is the fear of a possible economic breakdown. If you don't prepare kids for jobs, particularly for the jobs that are currently needed, then it is going to hurt the economy. Everybody is going to suffer if the kids are not trained to read, or add, or spell.

Possibly a consequence of the fear of economic breakdown is a fear of social breakdown--a breakdown of what is so often referred to as the "protestant ethic." It is a breakdown of the notion that hard work brings success and happiness in the long run. There is fear that the American people will lose their rugged individualism--that this hardy breed will not go out and conquer new worlds and invent new inventions. In fact, I noted in the newspaper just the other day that the United

States used to lead the world in inventions and in inventors, and we no longer do. I suppose the "back to basics" people could say we are getting soft on kids in school, that we are teaching them social (soft) skills and not enough of the hard skills that will pay off in terms of industrial productivity and scientific research.

ERIC/ChESS: How would you deal with these fears?

SUCHMAN: All of these things I have mentioned--the fear of change, of permissiveness, of quality breakdown in education, of economic breakdown, of social breakdown--are to some extent justifiable. Yet, I think the way the "back to basics" people try or would like to deal with them is through a process of shaping people to fit a pattern. Education, as they see it, ought to be a shaping process. Education is training kids to perform skills. They operate from the premise that kids need the tools by which they can forge ahead and behave like really good American citizens. I would like to offer an alternative view of basics.

So far, the things I have mentioned are performance outcomes, ways of teaching, content, or philosophies of education. I see these as overlays. They are concepts of how we go about educating kids. In the attempt to shape the educational process and to develop the goals of education, people in the "back to basics" movement are actually taking the educational process they believe in and making it into a goal. Instead of identifying goals and adjusting means to achieve them, they make goals out of means and sanctify them as time honored.

An alternative view is to start with what is basic about man. If we are going to have an education that is rooted in basics, then it must be rooted in the nature of man. We can look at basic education as that which supports the natural human learning processes, builds upon them, and gives them added strength. Teachers who can make education basic in the above sense must know themselves, know the nature of learning, know their individual students, and know the subject matter they are teaching and be able to help children build their own knowledge.

My approach to teaching is to begin by learning the nature of my students. I study each learner without a thought about teaching, without having any objectives to begin with, without feeling compelled to push him anywhere or steer him in any direction. I need to know how he learns when nobody is teaching. This is basic. It influences everything he does and helps me determine that, if anything, I can do to help him learn.

I regard inquiry as one of the most, if not the most, basic learning processes. From the outset, basic education must take into account the inquiring nature of man. If inquiry is the basic process, it's already in man and we don't have to put it there.

ERIC/ChESS: What is the role of a school?

SUCHMAN: It seems to me that the basic educational process is to support inquiry. We have to identify conditions that are necessary for inquiry to take place. We must provide support for those conditions.

One of the conditions of inquiry is access to varied experiences that permit the child to mess around, explore, and encounter his

environment. This lets him learn about himself and other people, as well as his physical environment.

Second, the child has to be free to convert experience into meaning, to formulate ideas, to engage in the process of building knowledge, formulations, and theories. In other words, the child needs to extract meanings of his own from his encounters with the world.

All of this is far more basic than even reading. It is learning to use inborn intellectual tools.

ERIC/ChESS: Where does the teacher come into this process?

SUCHMAN: First, the teacher protects the child so that the natural learning/thinking process can function. Second, the teacher intervenes to help sharpen the tools. Concepts are tools. Language is a tool. Ideas are tools. The teacher can do a great many things to see that the child has a variety of tools as he inquires that will enrich and strengthen the process of inquiry. I see this as very basic--protecting on one hand and supporting the basic learning process of inquiry on the other.

As the child sets out on journeys of inquiry, much of what he does is visible. As he gathers data, formulates ideas, tests them, produces products, and solves problems, the teacher is there to see what's going on. If the child runs into difficulties, the teacher can intercede to help him or let him struggle with them for awhile.

A teacher has many options. His role is clinical--that of a facilitator. He respects the basic nature of his students and does what he can to help them identify goals and find a way to achieve them.

ERIC/ChESS: How is this sort of thing going to satisfy the "back to basics" people?

SUCHMAN: I think we have to show them that the things they fear the most do not have to happen, but I don't think we can convince them with rhetoric. They have to see for themselves that what is weak in today's education cannot be made strong by a simplistic, anachronistic curriculum.

The strength of any educational system is the degree to which it is responsive to the nature and needs of its consumers. There are schools where inquiry is predominant. Motivation and achievement are high. The fears of the "back to basics" people have not been substantiated.

Perhaps the schools that are in trouble have not fully thought through the nature of the learning process, or have not been able to support inquiry. Perhaps they have not provided sufficient structure; so, freedom has become tyrannical. We need to show the skeptics a school environment where there is a healthy balance between structure and freedom, where, within reasonable limits, students can try out their own learning strategies as they pursue goals set jointly by the student and the teacher. Teachers who experience learning through an inquiry process have an appreciation of this process and are better equipped to support this basic mode of learning in their students.

Howard Mehlinger

ERIC/ChESS: How do you define the "back to basics" movement?

MEHLINGER: Defining the "back to basics" movement is difficult. I think it means different things to different people. To some people it means a return to the main-line subject, like American history and American government. To others it means a return to traditional methods of instruction. There seems to be a feeling that the inquiry approach or the use of games and role playing have not produced adequate results in student performance. As a result, some teachers are responding to recent criticism by teaching specific facts and using more traditional kinds of textbooks.

In some cases "back to basics" has very little to do with the instructional style or the content of subjects. It may have to do with the level of discipline that taxpayers and teachers would like to see in schools. Some educators fear that there is a decline in student expectations and performance--the amount of homework and the amount of writing they should be doing and the number of exams students should take. Parents and teachers advocating "back to basics" may want students to go to a more traditional kind of school because they want students to work harder.

ERIC/ChESS: Why do you think the "back to basics" movement is growing so rapidly in popularity?

MEHLINGER: It seems to be stimulated by at least two things. The reported decline in SAT scores and tests may be part of the reason. Second, the economic situation has had some impact. Schools have less money to spend and simply are spending less on curriculum materials. There is much more interest in buying a textbook and having everything in that textbook. Supplementary materials, such as games and films, are being cut out of school budgets.

ERIC/ChESS: How would you characterize the "new social studies" and the "back to basics" movements in their approach to teaching?

MEHLINGER: The "new social studies" tends to be highly student directed. "Back to basics" tends to be highly teacher directed. There are a lot of traps in this kind of distinction because not all the "new social studies" materials are student directed. Some of the materials are very much teacher directed, with teachers studying the objectives for the units and directing the students toward the specified behavioral outcomes. The difference seems to be that the approach of the teacher is not "read-recite." The "back to basics" idea probably has been overwhelmingly teacher directed. The teacher has the agenda which directs what the students are to learn.

ERIC/ChESS: Could you assess the overall strengths and weaknesses of the two approaches?

MEHLINGER: One of the things that the "back to basics" people do which is healthy for the field is stating that some knowledge is more

worthwhile than other knowledge. The "new social studies" people have not really had to face that. They have tended to stress the processes and skills rather than the topics or content.

The "back to basics" people feel students will have a weak education if students don't understand that the American Revolution occurred in a particular period or if they don't know that Thomas Jefferson was a principal author of the Declaration of Independence. I suspect they are right. It is very hard to decide exactly what the important factual knowledge is. But, I think the "back to basics" advocates are absolutely right for raising some questions about the "new social studies" people not making any real choices on what kind of knowledge they think is absolutely essential. The "back to basics" people have provided a useful corrective.

However, the "back to basics" people should not ignore that the "new social studies" brought some new things into the field that should not be lost. They brought, for example, an emphasis upon reasoning, logic, defending conclusions, investigation, testing assumptions, questioning the evidence, and questioning assertions that were not well founded. All of these are very strong parts of the "new social studies" which we dare not lose. The teaching approaches embodied in the new materials simply make social studies far more exciting than what it was before. To go back to the more traditional "read-recite" kind of instruction characteristic of traditional textbooks would be a mistake.

ERIC/ChESS: From your perspective, is citizenship development one of the overall goals of the "new social studies?" If so, how do you define what is a "good" citizen?

MEHLINGER: I remember attending a meeting several months ago in which the program committee focused on whether the term "citizenship" should appear as the main theme of the program. There was some rather strong opposition to the use of the term "citizenship," which surprised me. A great number of people attending the meeting, who I think are leaders in social studies, objected to the use of "citizenship," feeling it was not a proper kind of concern--that it represented low-order objectives for social studies. On the other hand, other social studies experts would say that citizenship education is what social studies is about.

I think that many of the people in the "back to basics" movement consider citizenship one of their concerns. I would guess that they, too, might differ among themselves. There would be some who would say certain kinds of behavior are important and schools ought to be attending to them. On the other hand, I would guess the Council for Basic Education may be far less concerned about that and more concerned with students knowing certain subject matter.

From my own personal point of view, I think social studies does have a responsibility to citizenship development and to citizenship education. When I talk about the citizen, I am talking about a person who is aware of political activities that are occurring within his society, a person who is capable of making good interventions in the political process so as to maximize both personal and multiple group interests, a person who is able to maintain multiple loyalties. All of these things add up, to me, as being part of citizenship.

ERIC/ChESS: In general, how do the "new social studies" and the "back to basics" curricula differ in dealing with value issues and dilemmas in the social studies?

MEHLINGER: I think there is a tendency on the part of the "back to basics" people to be more specific and more explicit about defining values. I think that some "back to basics" people are interested in promoting certain kinds of values. There seems to be a certain kind of inculcation of a particular set of values, such as values associated with patriotism, fundamental Americanism, and fundamental religion. On the other hand, I think the "new social studies" people tend to be more value neutral and more ethically relative.

In another way you could say the two groups are very much alike. Both have tended to say that value issues are very important and you need to deal with them. However, each deals with the issues differently. The range of differences depends on the particular advocate. When the "new social studies" movement began, one of the main issues was to sort out value propositions from assertions about factual matters or empirical questions. In the older traditional textbooks these things were all joined together so that the statements "democracy is the best form of government" or "government is best which governs least" were all treated as kinds of empirical propositions. The "new social studies" people try to make some distinctions and clarifications about values and try to help students make judgments about value questions.

ERIC/ChESS: What do you see as the future for the "new social studies" and the "back to basics" movements?

MEHLINGER: There has been a lot of change since 1960 in the way we approach teaching social studies, and that change appears to be continuing. I don't think we are going to find either the "back to basics" or the "new social studies" winning in any absolute sense. We are going to find competing ideas of which there are not just two casts but multiple casts continuing to set forth alternative approaches to social studies.

6. LOOKING AT . . . EVALUATING VALUES EDUCATION

(An interview with James R. Rest)

James Rest was interviewed in late 1976 by Jeanne Race and Bob Barrett, high school teachers on leave from their home school districts who were spending a year as teacher associates with the Social Science Education Consortium. Dr. Rest, a professor in the Department of Social, Psychological, and Philosophical Foundations of Education at the University of Minnesota, did postdoctoral research in psycholinguistics and the cognitive stages of moral thinking under the sponsorship of Roger Brown and Lawrence Kohlberg at Harvard University. His Defining Issues Test (DIT) was designed to determine how people think about the social problems associated with some of Lockwood's and Kohlberg's dilemmas.

Introduction

At a moment of change, great disruption occurs in a society. At present the youth are examining and questioning the values and evaluating processes of our past. Traditionally, those institutions most heavily involved in the formation of values have been the home, church, and school, and each will continue in that role. Educational theoreticians and practitioners are being judged to see if their work is meeting the needs of society.

To that end, questions are being asked about the values education programs in schools across the country. What is the role of the school in values education? Should values or the process of valuing be taught in the public schools? How does one effectively evaluate values education? These questions show the need for the development of effective evaluation instruments and qualified people to interpret the results. In addition, the controversies surrounding values education make the topic a matter of concern.

Interview

ERIC/ChESS: Why is evaluating values education important?

REST: Evaluation involves collecting information to help formulate answers or gain perspectives. Evaluations are important for a wide range

of concerns. For example, evaluations are useful in determining the effect of programs on students. They can pinpoint the classroom conditions or the educational experiences by which students change for the better. Evaluations answer questions about the correlation between teacher characteristics and student learning. In addition to measuring student learning, evaluations assess the conditions and program components which affect student experiences. Finally, evaluations show the kinds of students which benefit the most from a program. All of this information can be used to enhance the program for other students.

ERIC/ChESS: Why is evaluating values education difficult?

REST: Evaluations of any kind are difficult in the social sciences. The social sciences aren't as precise as the natural sciences in terms of conceptualizing the crucial variables and processes, and the instruments or means of assessment are not as well developed.

Values education is more difficult to assess than a reading or math program because of the difficulty in conceptualizing the goals of values education. For example, one of the goals of a values education project is the development of an integrated and autonomous person. That's really hard to be very precise about. I think we all have an intuitive sense of what a fully integrated person is, but that is very hard to measure. It's much easier to assess a reading program and find out if a student can read with comprehension.

Another intangible goal of affective education is producing someone who can participate effectively in a democratic society. A further goal would be producing a moral person. These goals are pointing in the right direction, but we just don't have their implications and meanings very well conceptualized. Values education is still fuzzy. The difficulty is a very basic one, very much rooted in the nature of the phenomena. We just can't depend upon some clever person to come up with a tool that's going to wipe away all those difficulties.

ERIC/ChESS: There seem to be two schools of thought regarding the conceptualization and evaluation of values education. One is that people don't agree on what the values education concepts are; therefore, we will never reach consensus on what to evaluate. The second is that the concepts cannot be agreed upon, because they are intangible. Which of the two alternatives is responsible for the difficulties in evaluating affective education?

REST: Of the two alternatives I am least favorably disposed towards the latter, which suggests that there is something intrinsically inevitable, mystical, and maybe basically unfathomable or even unreachable about values as opposed to other aspects of human concern. As to the former statement, a "genius" hasn't come along in the field of values education as has been the case in other areas, such as Chomsky in psycholinguistics and Piaget in the development of logical thinking. We need the sort of bold, new conceptualization that has occurred in these other fields. I'm envious of those fields where a "genius" has appeared and breakthroughs have been made.

ERIC/ChESS: Do you view yourself as the person to lead the breakthrough?

REST: No, I'm a worker in the vineyards. One is not in bad company, though, as a worker.

ERIC/ChESS: What are some of the major concerns when assessing values education?

REST: It cannot be overstated that a major concern is to formulate as clearly as possible what the goals and objectives of values education are. Teachers should not let their rationale lie in the fact that there is a lot of interest in the curriculum materials, and that some long-term significant change will come about from that.

Another concern is for the development or selection of evaluation instruments. The help of someone who has spent a lot of time in either instrument development or in instrument evaluation should be employed. This does not mean that each classroom has to hire a psychologist. Certain models of evaluation can be replicated, applied, and reapplied to similar programs.

Another concern is that any values education program should demonstrate that it is contributing to some cumulative, long-term change. A further concern is that evaluation continue to be an ongoing process--but don't test the kids to death.

ERIC/ChESS: How would you rate the validity of oral versus written evaluations for values education? For example, would student peer evaluations be valid?

REST: There are some types of written material that are invalid. For instance, one of the most expensive tests to administer is the Rorschach, and I believe the literature makes it look pretty worthless. There are certain requests made to students which they can respond to quite candidly. For example, if a teacher asked the students, "Did you like the material covered this week?," some very valuable information could be obtained. But if they are asked "Did your self-concept change from last week to this week?," the information might be harder to use.

It would be difficult for a student in a classroom setting to give a meaningful response to a point-blank question involving some rather slippery concepts or to a question that threatens him. In these cases, a student's answer might be verbal garbage.

An alternative approach to collecting information might be to hire a fellow student to interview class members individually with a tape recorder. In the relative security of a student-to-student situation, the responses would have greater validity.

ERIC/ChESS: What kind of training should a teacher have in order to measure values education?

REST: According to Kohlberg, one of the most important roles of the teacher is to provide students the opportunity to think through and work through the decision-making process and the process of formulating

their own values. The teacher does not have to be at a high stage to do this, but should be able to set the conditions under which the active process of working through one's own values takes place. Studies have shown that when this process occurs, students can reorganize and trace the implications of their own thinking. The teacher does not have to be a wise shaman who is experienced and all-knowing. But any teacher training should include communication and leadership skills.

ERIC/ChESS: Some colleges are offering teacher training on evaluating moral development. Would you say that we are teaching moral development as if it were a skill?

REST: Ninety percent yes! Those aspects of moral development with which the school has the most leverage and the most hope of affecting students are those which are most teachable. For instance, students should have a clear idea of how their interests are interwoven with the interests of everybody else, have a clear idea of some of the social machinery that exists to further human goals, and understand why and to what purpose the social machinery exists. However, I'm not saying that this is all there is to developing moral character. Rather, those are the types of things that I think an educational system can do pretty well and where it can have some leverage.

ERIC/ChESS: Can a standardized test evaluate affective education?

REST: I have put in about the last five years of my life on the assumption that you *can* get meaningful results from standardized tests. I have been working on an instrument called the Defining Issues Test (DIT), and there are a number of projects that have used that instrument as part of their battery of information. Certainly each way of gathering data--whether by interview, by examining students, projects or products, by making observations in the classroom, or by taking paper-and-pencil objective tests--has its problems. But there is no problem-free method of collecting information.

ERIC/ChESS: What are some of the other valid standardized tests that measure values education?

REST: In selecting an evaluation instrument one must consider several factors--amount of time available, objectives of the program, use of the results in a decision-making process--to list a few. There are some sourcebooks that list and/or critique hundreds of these tests. One of these is *Instrumentation in Human Relations Training: A Guide to 75 Instruments With Wide Application to the Behavioral Sciences*, by J. William Pfeiffer and Richard Heslin (University Associates, 1973). Another is *The Seventh Mental Measurements Yearbook*, edited by Oscar Krisen Buros (Gryphon Press, 1972). This is a multivolume standard reference work. Another source is *Test and Measurements in Child Development: A Handbook*, by Orval G. Johnson and James W. Bommarito (Jossey-Bass, 1971). It reviews about 900 tests and measurements. The handbooks published by the University of Michigan's Institute of Social Research also are useful.

Because these books are extensive and contain large amounts of information, I suggest the following procedure: Use the handbooks to identify potential instruments, and read the instrument reviews. Note the time necessary for implementation and previous utilization. They refer to the suggested references for more information about each instrument. I would emphasize that laymen should seek professional guidance in the selection and evaluation process.

ERIC/ChESS: Some parents or teachers say that values education cannot be evaluated and, furthermore, that values should not be taught. Are these legitimate concerns, or are these people merely "fencing at windmills"?

REST: Many people attempt to make a huge distinction between values on the one hand and facts and academic skills on the other. This point of view was greatly promoted by the taxonomies of Bloom and Krathwohl. Krathwohl attempted to conceptualize the affective domain apart from the cognitive domain, but admits that "the affective domain was much more difficult to structure, and we are much less satisfied with results." I agree with that disclaimer and believe that one can make a conceptual distinction between the two; sometimes it is convenient to do so. However, the cognitive and the affective realms should not be viewed as different phenomena. I would like someone to give me an instance of engaging in only pure academic skills which involves no aspect of valuing or contains no affective component. I, myself, would hate to have to defend the distinction, and would hate to have to come up with an example that is so separate.

Another reason why people may regard the evaluation of values education as problematic is that evaluations have been pretty wide of the mark. Finding a corroborating set of data out of an evaluation is probably something of a rarity.

In regard to the question of whether we should or shouldn't be teaching values, I'd like to refer to a study by Nick Sanders at Research for Better Schools in Philadelphia. This study examined statements of objectives from state boards of education. Not all state boards had objectives, but about 85 percent of the states that did included values or moral objectives. For example, a number of states listed instilling the values of a participatory democracy in the student as a chief rationale for public education. This is very much center state in values education. So I suggest that schools are very much in the values business.

7. LOOKING AT . . . LOCAL HISTORY

(An interview with Matthew T. Downey and Fay D. Metcalf)

Matthew Downey is a history professor at the University of Colorado. Fay Metcalf teaches social studies at Boulder (Colorado) High School. They were interviewed in early 1977 by Jeanne Race and Bob Barrett, teacher associates at the Social Science Education Consortium.

Introduction

When we set out to present the subject of local history to our readers we assumed that it was timely because of the Bicentennial. That was a limiting assumption, as you will discover. We were surprised to find the scope and interest in local history. People have become involved for a variety of reasons. Local history generates its own enthusiasm, and once initiated it becomes an integral part of the lives of both teachers and students. Further, we were impressed with the concept of "doing local history" as a participant, rather than the reading about history as a spectator.

Matt Downey is actively involved in finding ways to increase cooperation between college professors and secondary and elementary teachers. Dr. Downey believes that local history is one area in which all three grade levels can develop academic curriculum materials for simultaneous use. Fay Metcalf has been instrumental in implementing local history in the secondary school curriculum in her district. Together, they have published several books and presented a number of workshops offering guidelines and techniques for exploring local history in Colorado and the surrounding region.

Interview

ERIC/ChESS: What is local history?

DOWNEY: Local history is the history of the smaller communities in which all of us live. It may be the history of a town, a rural or suburban area, or a city neighborhood. It is microhistory, so the history of a big city of several million people might be stretching the term "local" too far.

Defined in this way, local history has been around for a long time. Americans were writing histories of their towns before there was any national history to write about. Of course, much of that was not good history; it was merely a chronicling of events, or it was ancestor worship. Local history, however, is critical and interpretive. That also makes it different from antiquarianism. The antiquarian would be interested in the first mill in town because it was the first mill. He would make the mill into a relic. The local historian would see the mill in a larger historical context, representative of the town or the region in which the mill existed.

ERIC/ChESS: What are the advantages of studying local history?

METCALF: Local history provides students with an immediate and tangible setting for discovering the relatedness of places, people, and events. Students can research historical sources and ask their own questions about the validity and usefulness of such materials. They learn to compile, evaluate, and interpret data in a meaningful manner. Students are given an opportunity to work with diverse groups of people in the community--something they will be doing as citizens all their lives--and in combination, these activities should develop a greater sense of identity and heritage.

DOWNEY: Local history is also a way of changing the traditional classroom study of history--it makes school history less static. In other words, it's a different mode of learning. It lets you see new dimensions in familiar surroundings instead of rote textbook learning. It is a way of living, an opportunity to see things the way historians do. One does not "study" local history, one "does" it.

ERIC/ChESS: Has the recent popularity of local history been largely a result of the Bicentennial?

METCALF: It is obviously not merely the Bicentennial that has caused the recent popularity. A grass-roots movement existed long before that celebration, and it has continued to develop since then. It is surely related to the new interest in ethnicity and ethnic history. People have been asking, "Who are we?" "Where are we going as individuals and as a nation?"

Local history is going to continue to be important as long as we are concerned about ourselves. We are an inward-looking rather than an outward-looking people at this particular period in our history.

DOWNEY: I think you could overestimate the importance of the Bicentennial, even though it did get people involved at the school and community levels. More important, I think the interest in local history reflects an intellectual change that has been taking place for the past 15 or 20 years. This change has involved a merger of people from history and the various disciplines in the social sciences. In addition to giving historians a variety of new research methods, it has also given new respectability and importance to once-neglected areas of research. Family history, women's history, demographic history, and local history are now being taken seriously.

ERIC/ChESS: Describe some of the techniques used in a local history program.

DOWNEY: Oral history has long been recognized as a way to get students involved in community studies. Many techniques used in local history are not traditionally part of school history courses. For instance, collecting artifacts, which has been associated with museums rather than schools, can be an exciting approach for students. Collecting and charting statistical data is useful, especially when studying local population patterns. Photographs are significant historical sources. Pictures are more than old relics--they are bearers of vital historical information. Neighborhood surveys of communities are very useful. When students are trained to do social profiles of a community, they develop a conceptual picture of what that place looked like in the past and what might happen in the future. For instance, in one square block they can see aspects of changing technology, architectual styles, and monument building. The techniques of local history are very flexible. Instructors should not feel that all techniques are required. The combination of techniques depends upon the topics or the problems that are being investigated.

ERIC/ChESS: How can a teacher with little or no financial resources develop a successful local history course?

METCALF: It is a fact that it is difficult to do a course with no money whatsoever. However, it is amazing what can be done with just a modest sum. In most communities, $200 or $300 would provide all the books and pamphlets ever published about the town, as well as some funds for photocopying or microfilming copies of old newspapers and duplicating old photographs. Local newspapers, local historical societies, and local history clubs are frequently very generous about donating materials and time to the developer of the course. The most important consideration is that you want the students to *do* the history, and not be *told* the history.

DOWNEY: There may be something gained by appealing to the community for support.

METCALF: Yes, in fact, we had a group who did just that. A local newspaper described a project relating to pioneer days. People from the community donated a variety of artifacts about pioneer days. The artifacts were then displayed on a long table. The students had to try to figure out what each artifact was, what it was used for, and what role it played in the total technology. The students verified their conclusions by listening to a tape in which the donor described the artifact. There was no cost to the teachers, and the kit will be used in the school district for many years.

ERIC/ChESS: Can you cite some recent publications on local history that would aid our readers?

DOWNEY: First of all, there are the two books that we have written: *Teaching Local History: Trends, Tips, and Resources* (SSEC and ERIC/ChESS, 1977) and *Using Local History in the Classroom* (American Association for

State and Local History, forthcoming in 1980). Several other guides have been produced in the past decade or so. One of the earliest was Clifford L. Lord's *Teaching History With Community Resources* (Teachers College Press, 1967). A more recent book is *Researching, Writing, and Publishing Local History*, by Thomas E. Felt (American Association for State and Local History, 1976). There is also a British publication entitled *Discovering Local History*, by David Iredale (Aylesbury, 1973). British teachers discovered the classroom uses of local history somewhat before we did.

METCALF: In addition, the single most important source for anyone interested in local history is the American Association for State and Local History (1400 Eighth Ave. So., Nashville, Tennessee 37203). They publish a monthly history news magazine which gives many ideas on local history. They also publish a series of technical leaflets that are of special interest. These include such titles as "Tape Recording Local History," "Cemetery Transcribing," and "Genealogical Research," plus many other aids for such specialized projects as "Identifying Axes, Adzes, and Hatchets," and "Old Lamps and Lighting Devices."

ERIC ChESS: What other organizations would help the interested teacher of local history?

DOWNEY: Teachers should start with their local historical society and the public library, both of which have vertical files as well as books and pamphlets. At a state historical society library, you would find many manuscript collections which include diaries, journals, and letters which have never been published but which can be photocopied for use in the classroom. Some states have issued publications about local history describing what can be found in various local or county museums and libraries.

ERIC/ChESS: Some critics say that we should not teach local or state history because our society is too mobile for such a narrow curriculum. What is your response to these critics?

METCALF: I find local history important precisely *because* we are a mobile society. Students who have had the opportunity to study one community in some depth, and who have consequently learned the skills necessary for such a study, will be able to more intelligently examine any other community.

Having been involved in international studies for a long time, I am very concerned that national history does nothing but teach us ethnocentrism. I feel strongly that we should teach about humankind, not simply America. I find the transition from local history to international history easier than from national to international. I think you see more of the human condition on a local level. When you pull history up to a national level, it becomes abstract, and you begin to deal only with the leaders, heroes, and national politics, rather than ordinary folk who live around the world. If you would do a comparative study of your local community with a similar community in India or Korea, you would find that many of the concerns on your local level are precisely the concerns that people have there. Local history helps identify oneself as a human being.

ERIC/ChESS: What are the future directions of local history?

METCALF: Local history will continue to be important. It seems to appeal to students of all ability levels and helps develop many skills. From a teacher's point of view, I would like to see the formation of a local history center or network which could systematically report on nationwide trends, strategies, materials, and techniques in local history. This service could operate similar to the Society for History Educator's Network News Exchange.

DOWNEY: I see a growing interest in both local and state history at the university level. It's part of a larger trend which may eventually replace the traditional political history with courses which have a larger social history content. It is simply easier and more manageable to investigate topics in family history, women's history, or the culture of work at the micro level.

METCALF: One final point, I think, is important: local history is fun.

8. LOOKING AT . . . CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION

(An interview with John Patrick)

John Patrick is professor of education and director of the High School American History Project at Indiana University. He is coauthor of Civics for Americans, *a high school textbook published in 1980 by Scott, Foresman. Dr. Patrick was interviewed in 1977 by Alice Vigliani of the ERIC/ChESS staff and Susan Hustleby, an SSEC teacher associate on leave from Byron-Bergen (New York) Central School.*

Introduction

Education for citizenship is a familiar concept that has been around for a long time, but during the mid-1970s there was a resurgence of interest in it as "citizenship education." In an effort to clarify this trend, we interviewed John Patrick, who has written extensively about citizenship education and related fields of political education and socialization.

Interview

ERIC/ChESS: What is your definition of citizenship education?

PATRICK: Thinking about the meaning of citizenship education should be a continuing challenge. This challenge precludes the need for consensus. I don't think we should seek a set definition of citizenship education which is appropriate for all times and places. Rather, defining citizenship education should be a task for each generation, not a problem to be somehow resolved once and for all.

As social conditions and human needs change, various facets of citizenship education may also change. However, regardless of variation from one time or place to another or from one person or a group to another, there are some constants that should form the basis of any reasonable definition of citizenship education. For example, I think that citizenship education certainly refers to teaching and learning the rights and responsibilities associated with membership in such groups as families, churches, schools, and labor unions, as well as cities, states, and nation-states. Educators should think variously about the meaning

of rights and responsibilities, about how to balance or mesh rights and responsibilities, and about which rights and responsibilities are more or less important to stress in the curriculum.

ERIC/ChESS: How long has citizenship education or "education for citizenship" been a concern of the schools?

PATRICK: Almost forever, it seems. Citizenship education has a very long and distinguished heritage. Plato and Aristotle discussed the challenge of developing good citizens in the ancient Greek city-states. Philosophers of the modern era of Western civilization, from Rousseau and Locke to Jefferson and Dewey, have been concerned about how to educate citizens. Educators in the United States have placed a high priority on citizenship education since the earliest days of our republic. Jefferson wrote eloquently of the need to educate masses of citizens so they might protect their inalienable rights and assume their responsibilities in self-government. Teaching precepts of good citizenship was a primary goal of Horace Mann. In 1918 citizenship was proclaimed one of the seven cardinal principles of education by the NEA's Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education. The goal of education for good citizenship in one way or another seems to have been a constant feature of curricula in our schools.

ERIC/ChESS: Why is there currently a resurgence of interest in citizenship education?

PATRICK: I'm not quite sure, but I have some hunches, and these hunches may have something to do with the propensity in our country to use the schools to help cope with immediate social problems. A whole set of problems confronted us during the upsetting social events of the 1960s. Many people responded by thinking that what we needed was more emphasis on education for responsibility or for faith in core values. They feared that our society was falling apart and believed there was a need for renewed emphasis on ideals and values that would hold us together.

Another reason, perhaps, was growing criticism by citizen groups of scandalous actions of high-ranking public officials during the 1970s. Renewed emphasis on citizenship education has been seen as an attempt to build confidence in our institutions and ideals. Possibly another reason was a reaction against certain curriculum reforms in the 1960s which seemed overacademic to some people and perhaps unsuited to the needs of precollege education for the masses.

ERIC/ChESS: How has the focus of citizenship education changed over the years?

PATRICK: Over the years, Americans have responded quite variously to the challenges of citizenship education. In the earliest days of our republic, citizenship education was tied to the paramount task of building a new nation. Fostering common values and national loyalty in the interest of developing social cohesiveness among peoples of diverse origins became a primary goal.

During the period of massive emigration from eastern and southern Europe, from about 1880 to 1920, citizenship education for conformity to prevailing values became practically an obsession. Educational leaders were concerned that the newcomers would corrupt our civic traditions, so they stressed the need to iron out variations in ethnic heritage. Thus, education for good citizenship in the public schools tended to be inculcation of certain values. You might call it a process of socialization to certain leaders' interpretations of American heritage and future needs.

Elwood Cubberly's writings are representative of this view. Cubberly stressed the need to teach the masses of newcomers what to think and how to behave in the interest of national stability and cohesion. Mark Krug has written eloquently of this period of educational history in a fascinating book, *The Melting of the Ethnics*, published by Phi Delta Kappa.

During the 1920s and 1930s, citizenship education became very solidly implanted in the curriculum in the form of new courses in community civics and American government. This was the beginning of the courses we now refer to as traditional civic education.

From the middle 1930s to the end of World War II, citizenship education was enlisted in the struggle to defend our democratic way against its prime enemies—fascists and communists. The postwar period intensified curricular emphases on the benefits of democracy compared to the detriments of communism. The pressures of the McCarthy era and the cold war compelled many civic educators to stress safe, one-sided views of loyalty and core value. With the demise of Joe McCarthy, interest in citizenship education seemed to decline. Many educators, perhaps as a reaction to the past, saw citizenship education as lacking intellectual rigor or sophistication.

As discussed earlier, interest in citizenship education has re-emerged, and it has reemerged in a more-complex, sophisticated form. I think that that is one of the legacies of the curriculum reform movement of the 1960s. That reform movement introduced some new dimensions to citizenship education today, such as law-related education, global education, ethnic studies, political behavior, values education, and social action learning. Skills in thinking and participating are stressed as well as the need to know and love the American heritage.

ERIC/ChESS: What are the goals of citizenship programs today?

PATRICK: One thing that we can note very quickly when we look at literature in citizenship education is that civic educators readily agree on goals when they are stated very abstractly. We all subscribe to education to promote human dignity, the rights of individuals, freedom, equality. Education for good citizenship in a democracy has been a long-standing slogan. The prevailing goal of the majority of social studies educators has been to promote democratic citizenship.

However, seeming agreement about goals quickly breaks down when we move from glorious abstractions to discussion of the specifics in teaching and learning. And as we begin to operationalize goals, our values come into play. Educators with different values and conceptions of human

needs necessarily disagree about what students should learn. Even when they seem to agree about the importance of good citizenship in a democracy, conflicts about what and how to teach are smoked out when one is required to clarify the meaning of the goal of good citizenship.

A primary conflict currently, as well as in the past, is between those who would limit citizenship education to maintaining traditions or promoting a particular interpretation of our heritage, and those who would foster competence to think critically and independently, which could lead to rejection of established beliefs and practices. Students who learn skills of independent critical thinking might use their capabilities to act in ways that challenge fundamental assumptions of the majority of citizens. Their challenging ideas and actions might threaten cherished facets of the American heritage. Can we afford to risk this kind of outcome? Can we afford to avoid the risk? The answers to these kinds of questions are better indicators of the real goals and values of civic educators than are slogans about human dignity, freedom, or democracy. So I highlight differences between those who would stress maintenance of the status quo and passive acceptance of traditions versus those who would stress the ability to make choices and to think independently.

ERIC/ChESS: At what grade levels should citizenship education be offered and stressed?

PATRICK: One way or another, I think it should be part of the curriculum for each grade level from kindergarten through the twelfth grade. Citizenship education in my view is more than the formal courses in history, civics, or government which are commonly offered in high school. It is also associated with observance of such patriotic holidays and rituals as reciting the Pledge of Allegiance and with learning rules of behavior through class discussions or community projects, school clubs, or athletic activities. Civic values and attitudes as well as knowledge and skills are learned through interaction with teachers and school administrators in various situations.

The so-called "hidden" curriculum, which stems from the educational climate of classrooms and the organizational structure and function of the school system, can be as important as the formal program of studies in the civic education of students. The hidden curriculum may be especially important in teaching attitudes and behavior; for example, how to relate to persons in authoritative positions. Civic educators, I believe, should become more cognizant of the so-called hidden curriculum and how it might be more effectively used to teach knowledge, skills, and attitudes at all grade levels.

Civic educators also might profitably consider how to engage elementary schools more fully and effectively in formal programs of citizenship education. This has been a neglected area. Richard Remy, of the Mershon Center at Ohio State University, is one of the few leaders in our field to devote considerable attention to the citizenship education needs of elementary-school children. I think that's a need that should be addressed more fully in the future.

ERIC/ChESS: Has any recent research documented the effects of citizenship education on the civic responsibility and participation of students on local and national levels?

PATRICK: Various surveys of citizens' knowledge and attitudes have been conducted in the last 20 years by national assessment groups, pollsters, and university-based civic research centers. These studies do not demonstrate directly the impact of citizenship education programs on students, but they are suggestive, and that makes them very valuable. These studies do show that a minority of our citizens have the knowledge, thinking skills, participation skills, and attitudes that might be necessary for effective participation in civic affairs. Most of these citizens hold privileged positions in our society. Those with higher levels of educational attainment and higher levels of socioeconomic status are more likely than others to have the knowledge, skills, and attitudes associated with competent performance of citizen tasks.

You might consider it an irony of our democracy that an elite minority rather than the masses seem to be the primary bearers of the responsibilities of citizenship. The masses of our citizens, according to these various assessments, seem to know the value of law and order, to respect legitimate authority, and to express basic loyalty to our country and its political system. Extremists of the left and of the right seem to win scant support, particularly from working-class citizens. Lessons about the need to obey the laws seem to have been learned rather well by the masses of citizens.

However, in a society with democratic ideals, such as ours, there ought to be more to education for responsible citizenship than passive acceptance of duly constituted authority. In a society with democratic ideals, responsible citizenship entails both obedience and constructive skepticism. It involves both respect for authority and constructive criticism of authorities. It requires citizens who are both compliant and independent, who will demonstrate obedience to the law while retaining a spirit of constructive criticism and reasonable dissent. The various assessments suggest that along some of these dimensions we might do better than we have in the past.

ERIC/ChESS: Considering that children who are in school today will be the decision makers in the early 21st century, what should be the focus of future citizenship education programs?

PATRICK: *Decision making* is the key word in this question. Skills, knowledge, and attitudes associated with competent decision making ought to be the bases of citizenship education programs of today and tomorrow.

In a society with democratic ideals, citizens are necessarily faced with significant choices. Political freedom entails both the right and the capability to make decisions. Making, judging, influencing, and implementing decisions are likely to be enduring tasks of citizenship as long as we maintain our democratic ideals. Citizens who can perform these enduring tasks will be competent to cope with the responsibility of citizenship today and in the future. If we can teach large numbers of citizens to be knowledgeable about social realities, to be skilled critical thinkers, and to be able to make, judge, influence, and implement decisions, then we can be satisfied with the achievements of citizenship education.

9. LOOKING AT . . . STAFF DEVELOPMENT

(Interviews with Elizabeth Dillon-Peterson, Nancy Bauer, and C. Frederick Risinger)

Elizabeth Dillon-Peterson, director of staff development for the Lincoln (Nebraska) Public Schools, has served as a consultant on staff development for public schools nationwide and was a leader in the development of the National Staff Development Council. She is chair for the 1981 yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development on the topic of staff development and is coauthor (with G. Dale Greenawald) of Staff Development for the Social Studies Teacher *(SSEC and ERIC/ChESS, 1980).*

Nancy Bauer, adjunct associate professor in the Graduate School of Education at the University of Pennsylvania, is a well-known social studies curriculum designer who has served as a consultant to school districts all over the country.

Fred Risinger, coordinator for school social studies at Indiana University's Social Studies Development Center, works with social studies educators throughout the Midwest. He is the author of many articles and publications on curriculum, departmental leadership, and staff development in the social studies.

James E. Davis, associate director of ERIC/ChESS, conducted these interviews in 1977.

Introduction

Given the proliferation of new content areas in school curricula, the imposition of national and local mandates related to curriculum and educational management, and the fact that more and more teachers are choosing to stay in their field for longer periods of time, the need to provide for the personal and professional growth of inservice teachers is becoming increasingly critical. Thus, for the past several years it has been clear that staff development has been a major concern of educational administrators. What is less clear is how this concern is being manifested, beyond simply setting aside time for an occasional "inservice day."

What are the national trends in staff development? What do educators see as the issues? How can schools and districts design effective

staff development programs? In an effort to answer these and other questions, we interviewed three prominent educators whose activities bring them into contact with teachers and administrators all over the United States.

Interviews

Elizabeth Dillon-Peterson

ERIC/ChESS: Would you comment on the widespread interest in staff development programs?

DILLON-PETERSON: The current emphasis on staff development doesn't seem to be localized in any particular area. All of a sudden everybody's interested in the topic, for a variety of reasons.

Much of the interest centers around dwindling student enrollment and the lack of teacher turnover. In a real sense we're all growing old together in education, and along with that growing old there is a resistance to change.

Another reason for the interest may be societal malaise, which tends to focus on the school because it is the one public institution that people can easily get their hands on, and staff development is seen as a way of solving social problems. Court-ordered desegregation is an example. The whole business of accountability is another. We want accountability in terms of kids' learning skills, but we also want them to feel good about themselves. This implies that the school has to operate on two tracks at the same time. In the past, I think we have wavered between the two. It has been training for life and social adjustment or it has been skill development, and never the twain shall meet. Now, educators don't have any choice. Society is saying we have to do both, and we'd better do them pretty well.

ERIC/ChESS: What national trends do you observe related to staff development?

DILLON-PETERSON: Nationally, I see that staff development is coming in part as a response to the attacks on education. Test scores are declining; people say kids can't read, they can't spell, they are not learning punctuation. This has become a widespread concern. As a result, a whole raft of major studies have been done on inservice training--none of which, to my knowledge, has any kind of follow-up intent.

A second national issue that seems to be getting a lot of attention (but no money) is federal interest in staff development. The teacher center is an example. Federal emphasis has come in response to teachers' demands primarily because school districts are not doing very much, universities have fallen down on the job, and neither have provided what was needed. So the federal government is saying it had better take a hand in staff development to see that something does happen.

Yet very little money has been put into the teacher center movement, and I have some concern about whether it isn't just a political issue. If federal involvement follows the typical pattern, the regulations may

even get in the way of providing effective staff development. Title III was an example. In the past, if you wanted to be sure to get turned down on a Title III proposal, you asked for funding for staff development. If we have learned anything in the past, it is that new programs won't succeed unless the staff development component is solid.

A third trend is that institutions of higher education are struggling to get a foothold in the inservice market. They need to do this to survive because of declining student enrollments and loss of student credit hours. I think maybe it's too little too late, because higher-education institutions have always treated inservice as a stepchild. It was the kind of summer activity that brought in a little extra income for some of the staff members, but it wasn't serious business.

I often tell my colleagues at the university that people like me wouldn't exist if universities had been forward-looking enough to anticipate needs and to provide appropriate kinds of assistance for school districts. In situations like mine across the country, universities are frequently being left out of the whole process.

The last thing that I see as a trend is a proliferation of private consulting operations. Some are very good, but most are not. Many people are getting into it because they know it is a hot issue and that small districts probably can't provide the kind of service that is needed from within. So they are packaging up a lot of entrepreneurial efforts and selling them "willy-nilly" about the country.

ERIC/ChESS: What is happening at the state and local levels?

DILLON-PETERSON: At the state level, I'm not sure that state departments of education recognize the importance of staff development or how to go about helping. What they most often provide is a kind of one-shot effort with very little continuity or followup. I don't think that is necessarily their fault. They are usually constricted by low budgets and are inadequately staffed. Many state boards of education have a very limited view of what staff development is, what it should be, or what the state's responsibility might be.

One shining light is the intermediate service unit. These seem to be emerging as effective delivery systems, particularly for small districts. A new wrinkle has been introduced through the requirement that each state have a comprehensive inservice plan in order to qualify for special-education funding. This is placing new coordination and leadership responsibilities at the state level which have the potential either to enhance the state's role in regard to local programs or to make it more onerous--time will tell.

At the local level, staff development and inservice activities are almost always concentrated in the central office--in the hands of curriculum supervisors. This is changing slowly (but I think surely) toward including building-based activities. At the building level, the staff sits together, decides what is appropriate, and plans and conducts those activities by requesting resources from the central office.

Another trend is that staff development is now becoming a greater part of the total planning of school districts. One of the biggest

changes I see in all of education is the move toward systematic planning, including staff development. There is also a tendency in most larger local school districts to use organizational-development concepts in staff development planning. That is, the needs of the total organization are considered rather than just narrow curriculum needs.

ERIC/ChESS: What are some important issues?

DILLON-PETERSON: One issue is that a real understanding of the purposes of the possibilities for staff development is largely lacking. For example, I have an education association committee that acts as an advisory committee to me in staff development. One of the charges they gave me last year was to develop a staff development communication package for this district which more clearly describes the nature and intent of the staff development program. This is in a district that has the highest monetary commitment to staff development of any that I know of in the country. Yet my committee says staff members don't really understand what staff development is all about. So if that happens here, in what is an almost ideal climate, think what happens in huge school districts where it's difficult to communicate, or in little school districts that have just begun to think about it! A real understanding of staff development is a major issue--what it is, what it can be expected to do, what it can't be expected to do, why it's important to have it, and in what context.

A second issue is financing. You don't need a tremendous amount of money to finance a staff development program, but you have to have some. Many school districts are trying to flounder around with almost no budget or must use money that is in somebody else's budget.

A third, and really crucial, issue is one of time. Most staff development is still being done at the end of the school day when people are tired. We have fought hard to have staff development during the day because we had many requests from people to do it that way. Interestingly, we now have people saying, "Hey, if it's all that important for us to be with kids then let's not be out of the building during the day; let's have it some other time." I don't know a solution to this problem. My personal bias is to have a year-round school schedule with time built in for staff development.

A fourth issue is how to make staff development a significant effort rather than just "much ado about nothing." Just doing *something* because it's the political thing to be doing right now or getting on the bandwagon is not good enough. Another issue is related to what can be expected of staff development. We can't expect that it is going to solve *every* problem in education. I'm concerned that we might get into a position where people say "let's do it through staff development" if there is a problem. There is a limit to what any teacher or administrator can absorb and put into practice.

Still another issue is the perception of many educators that they really don't need any more training of any kind--that they already are "finished products." There is resentment even of the expectation that we all need to continue to learn. This is particularly true of secondary teachers. Staff development people get together around the country and shake their heads. Elementary teachers are still very open, receptive,

and appreciative. Fortunately, at least in this district, we are beginning to notice more positive response to our efforts to involve secondary staff.

Last, there is the issue of accountability and evaluation. Teachers are terribly threatened by the whole business of accountability and evaluation. There appears to be a dichotomy in their minds between professional growth and performance appraisal. If they think that staff development is in any way tied to their evaluations in terms of job security, they are very, very resistant to the whole notion.

Nancy Bauer

ERIC/ChESS: What are some trends across the United States related to staff development?

BAUER: As a historian and as a traveler from school to school, I see two trends--one moving away from staff development and one moving toward it. The trend away from it is a disappearing faith in formal staff development on the part of teachers and parents, the ultimate clients. Teachers are not asking for it. The parents don't want to pay for it. There is very little pressure on the school boards for it, and I think school boards tend to cut it out of the budget. I also see a simultaneous trend toward a less formal kind of staff development. It is expressed by individual teachers in great numbers in the same ways acorss the country. It is expressed as cries for help.

ERIC/ChESS: Help in what areas?

BAUER: One is help with a new student population--a population that does not learn in the same ways that the teachers learned. It's scary to face a classroom of students who are not excited on the first day of school, who are not waiting to learn, and who do not see the relationship of schooling to their future.

Another kind of cry for help is related to accountability. Teachers are really frightened by accountability and at the same time they are very effectively undermining it. Teachers could say, "Give me the kind of help I need and I'll be glad to be held accountable." What they tend to say is, "Well, if I'm going to be held accountable, I'm going to set up very trivial goals so I'll be sure to be able to reach them." Accountability scares them. Therefore, they tend to reduce it to a failproof system.

Another interesting trend is what I call the "Jimmy Carter Memorial Trend in Citizenship." Carter has certainly spotted it in the country, and I see it as I work with teachers. This is a cry for help with citizenship education to prove once again that teaching has a purpose beyond September to June and after 3:15 p.m. I think the desire for moral education, moral obligation, and citizenship is once again coming back. We are being asked to look at the American dream and say, "In spite of all of our differences, we do share the noblest experiment of them all. Isn't there something we can do about it?"

Finally, there are the teachers who really are interested in staff development and ask for it. They are and always have been our strongest teachers. These are teachers with strong egos and senses of humor who know their subject matter and who feel strong enough to ask somebody else for help. The person who is strong enough to admit that he or she had a terrible day and to ask a colleague for help--these are the people who are the basis for continuing staff development.

ERIC/ChESS: What are some of the major issues related to staff development?

BAUER: One issue is defining the focus of staff development. Federal, state, and local agencies that fund staff development tend to finance small, specific projects, such as how to teach about pollution or how to build a resource center. In short, agencies tend to fund everyone who feels they have an answer to tell someone. They don't fund questions. They fund answers.

A second issue is the setting for staff development. The current setting for staff development tends to be a pattern of bringing a lot of people together. We are rediscovering what a lot of people have known for some time--that a great deal has to happen one-on-one and one at a time, in smaller settings, and in small school situations. You can't train a whole school district at one time.

The third issue relates to the question of content, particularly in the social studies and humanities. We need to discuss and debate what should be taught in social studies. We have had a fight going on for a number of years between history and the social sciences. We need funding, and we need time to sit down so that historians and social scientists can talk to each other about what an individual teacher should know.

It is history that provides the dynamics of how individual people and groups have actually made a change and made differences in the world. Models, rules, and theories don't create painting and literature, or even governments. How much history and social science should teachers and children know? Historians and social scientists don't talk with each other, either at the university or at funding agencies. We need time and opportunities to bring those people together--to select those people who wish to come together and focus on general education in the schools.

ERIC/ChESS: What are some priority needs in social studies staff development?

BAUER: The two most important relate to values. We need to value (and that means spending time and money) helping teachers do better what they already do, rather than simply spending time and money on something new. Teachers have to feel that they are valued for what they are already doing. It is just good management, strengthening what people are already good at.

Second, I think we need some honesty throughout the country about what schools can do. We cannot promise rose gardens and we certainly can't deliver them. I think that we need to say that we cannot use

schools to change the American system. There are those who would like us to use the schools as agencies of change. Schools are a place where you can and need to raise important questions. But we don't have all the answers. We need to ask "How can we teach subject matter to children who have little or no aural language in standard English?" We also need to ask "What can we guarantee educationally to children who have not had proper nutrition and are subject to extreme antischool peergroup pressures?" Schools can honestly provide a common denominator, but they can't honestly provide separate education for every child.

ERIC/ChESS: What advice would you give on beginning a staff development program?

BAUER: I'd be happy to give advice if you promise there is somebody who wants to take it. It is so nice to be asked. My first piece of advice is that where there are coordinators and supervisors in school systems, they should be encouraged to work with teachers on doing more effectively what they are already doing. Very few school systems have honored or rewarded the coordinators and supervisors who simply help teachers help each other. For the most part, coordinators and supervisors have had to justify their existence by adding new courses or new units or model lessons or mimeographing guidelines without being rewarded for the ongoing support that is so important. I think we need in-house, in-district staff developers who simply work with teachers, helping them identify their needs and their strengths and helping them help each other.

A second piece of advice has to do with management training--providing general management training for people who become department heads and principals--management training of the kind that promotes democratic leadership. This is something that is desperately important. All actors in a school system have to see themselves as part of a cooperative effort. They all need to learn how to help people on a day-by-day basis and to be less didactic, less hierarchical, less bureaucratic.

A third piece of advice I would give is to legislators who set the standards. I suggest that they hold people accountable for trying. Every teacher has to *try* to develop understanding of the development of American citizenship through history. If every teacher has to *try* to teach children to look at history and at modern times from many different perspectives, and if every teacher has to *try* to give language training, then we might get greater results. But if you only hold people accountable for results, then they are afraid to try.

Fred Risinger

ERIC/ChESS: Fred, you do a lot of work around the country in staff development. What kinds of trends do you see?

RISINGER: It seems that there is a growing interest in staff development that is being generated internally. The requests for staff development assistance seem to be coming from within school systems rather than being imposed from without.

ERIC/ChESS: Who is generating requests for assistance?

RISINGER: Mostly school administrators. In a few cases teachers themselves are requesting help. One of the things I have noticed is that much of the administrative concern relates to the nature of school faculties. There are fewer and fewer new young teachers coming into school systems, simply because there aren't any spots to fill. Therefore, administrators can no longer rely on universities to do their staff development by hiring new young teachers who have been trained in the latest techniques. Second, the number of federal and private-foundation workshops seems to have diminished over the last four or five years. Therefore, schools no longer can depend on these outside agencies for their staff development.

Another trend is that middle-management-level people in charge of staff development are being phased out. Either they are being eliminated entirely or, as people retire, the positions are simply not being filled. This means that those responsibilities are now either being taken by an administrator at a higher level or are being given directly to department heads in the schools.

Although I hate to see social studies supervisors being eliminated, I think it might result in more-positive programs if staff development programs are planned for individual schools, rather than for a total district.

ERIC/ChESS: What kinds of issues or concerns or problems have you seen related to these trends or related to staff development in general?

RISINGER: We should first ask if there is enough time for a department head to carry out staff development responsibilities. In many cases, when additional responsibilities are placed on department heads, they still have the same amount of released time, which in most districts ends up being something like one class period per day. That amount of time is almost necessary *just* to be a good department head. A coordinated, well-planned staff development program requires more time than one hour per day. One of the things we are seeing in a few districts is the trend toward providing department heads with a ten-and-a-half-month contract rather than a ten-month contract. This provides them with a week or two at the beginning of the year, or perhaps a week at the end of the year to handle staff development.

Another problem that I find is the reluctance of teachers to participate in any program that is not specifically written into a master contract or some negotiated agreement with the school board. This eliminates the activity of "Let's get together over at my house this evening and plan a program for next year." Teachers simply are not doing that. It's not that they don't want to improve; it's that they are making a statement to the board by saying, "We're only going to do things that you pay us for that are specifically written into our contracts."

ERIC/ChESS: Where does that leave us as far as potential for change and improvement?

RISINGER: It means that we have to write things into master contracts that go beyond what is being written now. In Indiana, negotiated contracts must include salary, fringe benefits, and the like. Other things such as instructional improvement, textbook selection, and class size are not items in a master contract. The Indiana Council for the Social Studies is trying to work with other groups--the National Council of Teachers of English, the Hoosier Science Teachers Association, and some administrative organizations--to see if we can't write into the contracts specified days or hours that can be used by the school for staff development and instructional improvement. We feel that if we can work with teachers' organizations as well as administrative organizations to change the nature of master contracts, we'd be a lot better off.

ERIC/ChESS: If you had to make a list of needs for staff development, either in general or for the social studies, what are some priorities?

RISINGER: One of the main things would be to formally designate an individual or a group of individuals to be responsible for staff development in a school. In most school systems, some of the staff development responsibility falls on the principal, some on a curriculum coordinator or an assistant superintendent for curriculum, and some on department heads. All three of these people have some responsibility for staff development, but in many cases the specific responsibilities have never been made clear. A second step would be to set aside a definite time period that would be used by individual departments, or perhaps even the total faculty, for staff development. A third need is to bring together some material and activities to aid people at the local level who are responsible for staff development.

Epilogue

"How to Kill a Staff Development Program"

(Reprinted with permission from *Staff Development Newsletter* 2, no. 2 [September 1975].)

Many people (possibly including some pessimistic staff development directors) are under the erroneous impression that it is easy to kill a staff development program. Actually, it requires effort and dedication, and unless it is carried out properly is unlikely to be successful.

Timing is crucial. An early attack is essential, since experience has shown that once a staff development program has been allowed to gain a little momentum, it becomes increasingly difficult to kill. Dangerous enthusiasm may build up. This can easily become contagious and difficult to contain or squelch.

An important factor to keep in mind is that everyone involved must work cooperatively together in the program-killing operation. Team effort is almost essential if the task is to be accomplished. Because each individual or group must bear part of the responsibility for the demise, it is appropriate to consider specific ways in which each category may contribute to the overall effort.

Central Administration

Those having primary leadership responsibilities in the district have a unique opportunity to strike the initial (or possibly prenatal) blow. The best way they can eliminate the program before it gets under way is to see that most or all of the following conditions exist:

--The board of education does not recognize the need and provides little or no funding.

--The superintendent does not support the idea or gives only lip service to it. If pressure for staff development efforts comes from another level of the organization, he may allow it to dissipate through benign neglect.

--The top administrative officers in the district do not demonstrate a commitment to continuous personal self-improvement.

--No one person is given prime responsibility for the staff development program within the district. If someone is named, that individual is ineffective or buried several layers down in the bureaucracy.

--There are no clearly stated district or building goals which could be used to provide focus for the staff development program. If goals exist, they are so general that they provide little direction for the program.

Staff Development Director

Assuming that the board and central administration have not provided appropriate discouragement for the program, the next line of offense lies with the staff member responsible for the program, such as a director of staff development.

To provide direction for this individual, the following guidelines have been prepared:

--Don't involve the individuals for whom the staff development program is designed in the identification of needs, planning, or implementation of the program. Trust your own omniscience in knowing what the staff needs--after all, you're the expert.

--Provide many "one-shot" activities of the "dog and pony show" variety as opposed to long-term programs focused on behavior change.

--If there are district or building goals which are relatively specific, don't pay too much attention to them. Concentrate on keeping staff members from complaining by providing many fun and games "smorgasbord" type activities.

Building Administrators

Should the program survive the "kill" efforts at the central administration level, the building principal has a rare opportunity to severely damage the program or totally destroy it, particularly in decentralized school districts.

The following procedures have had documented success:

--Do not model a positive attitude toward staff development.

--If you feel obliged to give token support to staff development efforts, make it clear to the staff that you really aren't in favor of the program but that you, too, have been forced into participating in staff development activities against your will.

--If you do tolerate a building-based staff development program, it is especially important that you personally do not actively participate throughout the complete activity. Such participation can be very dangerous and may encourage further building activity (which is even more hazardous, since many management people say that building-level staff development programs are most likely to be successful). Giving benign approval to the activity by "welcoming" the group or popping in and out of the sessions is allowed, since it may be only moderately harmful.

Staff Members

The last-ditch effort must be made by staff members, primarily classroom teachers, who can be very effective if they taken an obstinate stand. These are suggestions for staff members who are committed to stamping out staff development programs:

--Refuse to participate.

--Take no personal responsibility for helping identify needs, planning, implementing, or making specific suggestions for improvement.

--If you do attend, criticize, condemn, and complain.

--Mutter frequently, "We tried that and it didn't work" or "We're already doing that."

--Assume that any efforts to provide staff development activities are forms of implied criticism or suspicion of ineffectiveness on your part.

--Assume that all you need in the way of teaching improvement is an occasional college course to upgrade your content background.

--Convince yourself that you're already better at your job than most of your peers.

--Assure yourself that society is lucky you'll even work with today's impossible kids, and that you're making enough of a sacrifice of your time without folks' expecting you to participate in staff development activities, too.

--Smile with amused tolerance at your colleagues who are enthusiastic about staff development activities.

--Become obsessed by the really significant aspects of the staff development program--parking, coffee, and room temperature.

If you've conscientiously tried most of these techniques and your staff development program is still alive and well, I suggest you give up.

You just may be a victim of a healthy, dynamic, growing institution which is focused on providing a better climate in which kids can learn, and nothing can stop that! But don't feel too sad--you tried, and that's all anyone can ask.

10. LOOKING AT . . . TEACHING ABOUT AGING

(An interview with Fran Pratt)

Fran Pratt, a teacher at Acton-Boxborough (Massachusetts) Regional High School, was interviewed in early 1978 by Susan Hustleby, then a teacher associate of the Social Science Education Consortium. His book Teaching About Aging *was published in 1976 by SSEC and ERIC/ChESS.*

Introduction

Everybody grows old, if they live long enough. Unfortunately, in our youth-oriented society, growing old is often perceived as a negative experience. Young people are especially likely to hold negative views about aging. However, growing old can be a positive experience. We all know many "older" people who enjoy full and active lives.

Fran Pratt teaches about aging in his classes. Pratt suggests that teaching about aging is an important factor both in helping students prepare for a future part of their lives and in changing negative perceptions and stereotypes about old people.

Interview

ERIC/ChESS: How did you become interested in the topic of aging?

PRATT: I think the topic is one that is personally interesting to everyone. Aging is the one experience that is lifelong and universal, but as we grow older, our interest sometimes turns into concern. As a man in my mid-40s, I became very conscious of aging when I realized the age difference between my daughter, who had lived less than a decade, and my mother, who had lived more than three-quarters of a century.

As we grow older we become more conscious of time. There is a tendency in our society to try to suppress this concern about aging, but it still comes to the surface in many ways. For example, such expressions as "over the hill," "all washed up," and "on the shelf" are used to describe people who are growing older. Society has an abundant reservoir of aging jokes, mostly negative, and a great many cartoons, comics, films, and television programs reflect a concern about aging.

I think that there is nothing unique about my interest in the topic. In fact, I think everyone has an interest. As we grow older, we become more aware of the aging process.

ERIC/ChESS: What motivated you to teach about aging in your classes?

PRATT: My interest in teaching about aging arose out of my anthropology class activities. In a study of status systems, I assigned a "personal status biography." I asked students to use their imaginations to project themselves in to the future by listing terms that would describe themselves at different ages up to 70.

The results were very revealing. Most students used negative terms to describe themselves at the age of 50, and they were especially negative about describing age 60. They used such terms as "senile," "arthritic," "old biddy," "old goat," "fuddy duddy," and "has been." In describing age 70, some students simply listed themselves as "dead" or "a corpse."

When I compared this activity to activities in other classes, both at my school and elsewhere, I realized that most students have a rather negative and stereotyped image of old people and of what it means to grow old. That is when I organized a minicourse which was designed to ultimately present a more-balanced view of the aging process. I have since incorporated aging on an ongoing basis within the context of my anthropology course, with a concentrated study for three or four days.

ERIC/ChESS: Why should we teach young people about aging?

PRATT: It seems ironic that young people, who have such long lives before them, grow up thinking that it is inevitably bad to grow old. On the average, today's young people can expect to live longer than any previous generation in America, and life expectancy continues to climb. The latest statistics show that males born in 1977 are expected to live to the age of 72 and females to the age of 81. Based on these average figures, we can estimate that millions of today's young people are going to live into their 80s, 90s, or even beyond. We already have about 17,000 centenarians in the United States today.

More older people than ever before are leading full, active lives; they are demonstrating every day that life can be beautiful when you are old. Successful aging requires economic, psychological, physical, and emotional preparation. If we don't include teaching about aging in the curriculum, we are neglecting the responsibility for helping students prepare for that part of their lives.

Furthermore, we are in the midst of what I call a "longevity revolution," which has far-reaching implications for the future of society. Since 1900 the United States population has tripled. However, the population of persons over 65 has increased seven times and is continuing to increase. We now have about 22 million people in the United States who are more than 65 years old. By the time today's high school students become senior citizens, there should be about 52 million people who are 65 or older. In addition, the declining birth rate and the growing emphasis on medical research will increase life expectancy even more.

Because of this growing "older-aged" population, some major adjustments will have to be made in our youth-oriented society. The way in which our society deals with age-related issues over the next few years is going to be very very important for the future.

Finally, I think young people are going to learn about aging whether we teach them or not, but what they learn on their own is likely to be false and harmful. In other words, their impressions will be derived from jokes, cartoons, popular myths, and youth-oriented advertising. Even storybooks for young children frequently present negative and stereotyped images of older people. It is difficult for most children to grow up with a balanced view about aging and older people. Because of the instability of the family, the high rate of family mobility, and the tendency of modern neighborhoods to be homogeneous in age, few children today have regular contact with older people. Even children with living grandparents are not likely to know them very well. You can hardly blame children for growing up with misconceptions about aging and older people.

ERIC/ChESS: At what grade level should we teach about aging?

PRATT: Evidence shows that the same kind of negative attitudes about aging held by teenagers are held by younger children. A recent study of 180 children aged three to eleven, conducted by the University of Maryland, showed that the children generally viewed older people as unattractive, inactive, and chronically ill. Only 11 percent of the children had anything good to say about growing old themselves. This is a clear demonstration to me that teaching about aging is necessary at all levels.

ERIC/ChESS: Why is it the school's job to teach about aging?

PRATT: I think that society is rapidly becoming aware of the issues posed by a "graying" America. Schools are a mirror of society, especially through the social studies. Whenever any topic becomes a popular social issue, you can be sure that it is going to find its way into the classroom. I think this tendency is healthy in that it helps keep the schools relevant to the communities that support them. However, as rapidly changing social issues are incorporated into the school program, educators are confronted by seemingly endless problems related to adjusting and updating their curricula.

ERIC/ChESS: Would you elaborate on some ways in which aging can be incorporated into social studies curricula?

PRATT: First of all, I would like to say that teaching about aging is not limited to social studies classes. The topic is multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary; it fits into history and all areas of the social sciences, and it fits easily into other subjects as well. For example, there is a vast body of material in literature that describes how people of various ages interact with people in other age groups. A great deal of art and music deals with aging. Aging is also a biological process that affects all living matter. There is also a mathematical aspect to aging, especially in relation to demographic patterns of age groups and life expectancy. Certainly social studies does not have a monopoly on the topic.

However, we always face the problem of trying to fit new things into an already crowded curriculum. My suggestion is to "piggyback." For example, if I wanted to teach the concept of conflict, I would have a variety of conflicts to choose from. I could easily pick a conflict that had something to do with aging.

ERIC/ChESS: Could you describe some techniques and activities for teaching about aging?

PRATT: Values-oriented activities are very successful in teaching about aging and older people. Because the topic of aging is heavily laden with values, students can use this frame of reference to explore their feelings about themselves and their perceptions of older people. For example, I mentioned an activity earlier in which students simply wrote down the terms they might use to describe themselves when they became older. The whole class then looked at the terms to find out what they showed about attitudes toward aging. The students put a plus sign next to those terms that seemed to have positive connotation, a minus sign next to negative terms, and a zero next to terms that were neutral. Both orally and in writing, they analyzed their personal views of the aged.

To understand how society transmits attitudes and values about aging, a teacher could ask students to analyze aging stereotypes in television advertising or program content. Using case studies is another excellent way to provide a human dimension by focusing on individual situations with problem-solving dimensions. The case studies should focus on the lives of individual people and their circumstances. I would stress, however, that there should be a balanced representation of different situations when case studies are used. For example, if you present a case study about an individual who is unhappy in retirement, you should also present a study of a person who enjoys retirement and who continues to be very active.

ERIC/ChESS: What kinds of activities do you use to help students become aware of the problems associated with aging?

PRATT: It is very important to sensitize young people to the problems of older people. I often use an activity that simulates physical problems associated with aging--for example, deafness, blindness, or infirmities of various kinds. Students have fun with activities that allow them to use crutches or wheelchairs. To demonstrate problems related to poor sight, I ask students to put celluloid tape over glasses and try to read regular print. Although such activities are intriguing, they must be used cautiously or students may end up with an even stronger conviction that it is bad to grow old. So I suggest that they be used in conjunction with other activities in order to present a broader, balanced view of aging.

ERIC/ChESS: What kinds of experiences can you recommend to encourage interaction and contact between students and old people?

PRATT: Allowing students to interact with older people is one of the easiest activities to set up, and it is by far one of the most useful

ways to make students aware of the human dimension of aging. Intimate contact between young people and older people can be achieved by organizing small "rap" groups; small groups are more successful than large groups in accomplishing this goal. I believe that arranging for students to have personal contact with older people is one of the most powerful ways of changing stereotypes and negative attitudes. Incidentally, these sessions can also change the stereotyped attitudes that older people have about younger people.

ERIC/ChESS: How can a teacher with limited financial resources teach about aging?

PRATT: The work I have done in teaching about aging in my own classroom has not really cost anything, except for duplication of material. Teachers can take advantage of community resources by working with local professional groups, for example the Council on Aging, or senior-citizen groups, such as RSVP. You will find that many older people are willing to meet with young people and serve as resources. In addition, teachers can develop their own activities. Magazine and newspaper articles about older people can serve as sources for case studies. School and city librarians may be willing to develop bibliographies of materials in their collections.

Furthermore, the number of materials about aging available from commercial publishers is rapidly growing. Community and human resources, coupled with a teacher's own ingenuity, can easily provide the basis for a unit on aging.

11. LOOKING AT . . . INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

(An interview with Edward L. Meador and Richard Jorgensen)

Edward L. Meador is director of the Division of International Education, U.S. Office of Education; Richard Jorgensen is DIE's specialist for dissemination. They were interviewed in late 1978 by Paul Mulloy, then an SSEC teacher associate on leave from Winchester (Massachusetts) High School.

Introduction

A large body of evidence indicates that U.S. students suffer from lack of preparedness in meeting the global challenges that may soon determine the future direction of this nation. At the beginning of the 1970s, a handful of educators recognized the importance of infusing global perspectives into the precollegiate classroom. They have since been joined by a growing number of teachers and educators who believe that a commitment to international education by the federal government can provide a great deal of momentum to efforts to translate theory and rationale into specific strategies for classroom implementation. Our experience in helping and working with teachers confirms that there is growing and avid interest in international education and global studies. The following interview describes some of the efforts of USOE/DIE to promote the concept of international education.

Interview

ERIC/ChESS: Would you begin by defining the term *international education?*

JORGENSEN: The Office of Education does not have a single definition of international education. However, in my experience with the Division of International Education, I would say that our programs serve international education in a variety of ways. Basically we have experiential-based programs as opposed to academic or school-based programs, serving precollegiate education. Most of our programs are in the area of language and area studies, study abroad, fellowships in language and area studies, research in foreign languages, and international studies. All of these come under the umbrella of international

education. I would describe these programs as an attempt to help people learn about themselves as citizens of the world, emphasizing the interdependency of people and nations and developing the recognition and acceptance of the richness and diversity of various cultures.

MEADOR: I've always felt that one of our operational problems is to come up with a memorable definition that is inclusive enough to be accurate but not so discursive and lengthy as to lose the audience. Several students who worked in our offices here came up with what might be the shortest definition: international education, they said, is "anything that reduces ethnocentrism." While many of our definitions have perhaps said it better, this one has the great advantage of brevity. The Office of Education does not have a definition that everybody can agree on, but we do have some fine examples of how we hope to achieve, accelerate, and improve the various disciplines and activities classified under the broad term *international education*.

ERIC/ChESS: The majority of the OE programs that you described were for college students and inservice and preservice teachers. How important is international education in the elementary and secondary school curriculum, and what are the things being done in these areas?

JORGENSEN: It's extremely important that we make every possible effort to infuse international education or the concept of global perspective into the curriculum. It's not easily done, though, and in the face of other pressures on the curriculum, we recognize the difficulty in meeting that challenge. Very few of the programs out of our division, in fact, focus on the precollegiate level.

ERIC/ChESS: What are USOE's current objectives in international education, and how do they relate to current programs?

MEADOR: Presently, international education objectives in OE are undergoing scrutiny, and some significant changes have been announced by the Commissioner of Education. In the past, our international education efforts focused on the training of a cadre of specialists who were supposed to have a high-multiplier, high-impact effect. Today there is a growing feeling that American education at any level is incomplete if it lacks an international component. Our current objectives then are to revitalize and broaden the scope of international education and develop programs above and beyond the programs of the last two decades.

ERIC/ChESS: Do you have specific programs or strategies to carry out those objectives?

MEADOR: Yes, we have. Let me mention first the Commission on Foreign Languages and International Education, which President Carter recently created. The president appointed 21 individuals to recommend to him ways and means for directing public attention to the importance of foreign languages and international studies and to assess the national needs in these areas. Recommendations will be made concerning appropriate levels of public and private support, and existing legislation will be reviewed and changes proposed that will enable the government to more-effectively carry out the commission's proposals. In addition,

Commissioner [of Education] Boyer has set up a task force on global education to find ways to develop or infuse global perspectives throughout American education.

Within our own offices, we are looking at strategies for taking existing programs and augmenting, broadening, and developing their impact, particularly in reaching schools and with greater involvement at the K-12 level, in the community, and for all sectors of American education.

ERIC/ChESS: Besides the USOE efforts, what other things are being done to increase or improve international education, particularly in the K-12 curriculum?

JORGENSEN: What immediately comes to mind is the work being done by the Center for Global Perspectives in New York, the Kettering Project, and the National Endownment for the Humanities. And, of course, the development of curriculum materials is growing.

MEADER: I think almost every major educational association has either strengthened or improved its international education efforts. Just to mention a few, the National Education Association is strengthening its international office, and the National Association of Secondary School Principals has developed a very active international education committee. Some of the presidential and national advisory commissions, including the one on adult and continuing education, have recently set up subcommittees on international education.

ERIC/ChESS: Have you encountered any obstacles in expanding international educational efforts?

MEADOR: I can cite one major attitudinal or political obstacle that we have already encountered, and another that we will eventually have to come to grips with. First, there is a strong feeling in some quarters that global education is somehow un-American. These individuals say they want their children (and yours and mine) to learn "American" history and "American" mores and values. There is a "them" and "us" orientation about it all which I think is probably a major obstacle.

The second obstacle is objection to change. Although Americans pride themselves on accepting change and embracing the new and the innovative, it has been my experience that in education anything new and different is frequently regarded with a fair degree of suspicion.

JORGENSEN: I would say that an already overcrowded curriculum is also a real obstacle to the infusion of any kind of an international education program into the schools. There are too many competing interests. This is not really an obstacle directed at international education per se, but it is a built-in obstacle for education.

There is also the problem of teacher education in the United States. Teachers are not being adequately prepared to be involved in international programs.

Finally, I would cite the general lack of adequate funds in support of international education as a serious impediment to the promotion of

global education. The priorities in education are such that global education just falls way down on the list.

ERIC/ChESS: Looking ahead, what types of international educational programs and initiatives do you see the Department of Education supporting in the 1980s?

MEADOR: I think that the movement toward international education in community colleges is going to be one of the significant areas of development in the next few years. There will also be much greater expansion into the K-12 public school area. In addition, I feel that we will see an expansion of the various institutes that focus on global education, global concerns, and contemporary world problems. In short, global education may become a commodity that has the potential to dramatically alter students' lives in the classroom.

Epilogue

What follows is a selective list of organizations offering services to educators interested in international education. Many offer newsletters and brochures listing materials. Contact each organization directly for more information about its specific products and services.

Mid-America Program for Global Perspectives in Education, Indiana University, 513 N. Park Ave., Bloomington, Indiana 47401.

The Mid-America program endeavors to improve and expand global perspectives by helping schools and other agencies identify and mobilize the talents and resources needed. Efforts are geared toward helping young people obtain greater awareness of other cultures, world interdependence, and opportunity for participation in local events and activities which have international significance.

Global Development Studies Institute, P.O. Box 522, 14 Main St., Madison, New Jersey 07940.

The major function of this institute is to provide both internal and external support to teachers who wish to introduce global education topics in the classroom. Support is offered through publications and direct consultation.

Center for Teaching International Relations, University of Denver, Graduate School of International Studies, Denver, Colorado 80210.

The goal of CTIR is the improvement of teaching international/intercultural studies at the precollegiate level through sponsoring of teacher workshops, developing curriculum units, and providing a materials distribution center and consulting services.

Center for Global Perspectives, 218 E. 18th St., New York, New York 10003.

The emphasis of this organization is on the development of instructional materials with a global perspective and the necessary training of teachers so that these materials will be implemented successfully in the classroom.

World Future Society, 4916 St. Elmo Ave., Washington, D.C. 20014.

The society is a membership organization interested in social and technological developments during the coming years.

Worldwatch Institute, 1776 Massachusetts Ave., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.

Funded by private foundations, governmental agencies, and the United Nations, this organization identifies and focuses attention on global problems, including such issues as energy, women, population, conservation, health, and environment.

Overseas Development Council, 1717 Massachusetts Ave., Washington, D.C. 20036.

The main objective of the council is to increase knowledge and understanding about developing nations through study, research, analysis, and education.

Institute for World Order, 1140 Ave. of the Americas, New York, New York 10036.

The purpose of the IWO is to actively introduce the subject of world order into the curricula of all major educational systems.

Foreign Policy Association, 345 E. 46th St., New York, New York 10017.

This organization develops educational materials on current topics of importance in international education.

Oxfam America, 302 Columbus Ave., Boston, Massachusetts 02116.

This is an international agency which funds self-help development projects in Africa, Asia, and Latin America. While its primary purpose is funding international development projects, it has an education office which will supply learning materials to teachers.

American Council on Education, One Dupont Circle, Washington, D.C. 20036.

The ACE has sponsored several recent conferences, the purpose of which is to pull together a cross-section of federal agencies and interest groups to discuss emerging federal initiatives in international education.

Global Learning, Inc., 552 Park Ave., East Orange, New Jersey 07017.

Formerly known as Global Education Associates, this organization has an active schools program which offers workshops, inservice courses, and on-site evaluations.

12. LOOKING AT . . . TEACHERS' CENTERS

(An interview with William Hering)

Bill Hering manages a program of research on teachers' centers for the Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development. He has taught at the secondary and university levels and served on the staffs of two national curriculum development projects. Dr. Hering was interviewed in 1979 by Paul Mulloy, then a teacher associate of SSEC.

Introduction

The growth in the number of teachers' centers was stimulated by the passage of PL 94-482, which as of late 1979 had funded 90 new teacher-center projects throughout the country. Federal funding represents one source of potential support; however, as the following interview points out, there are several diverse methods by which teachers' centers may be organized and supported. With continued growth, the teachers' centers offer classroom teachers an increasing opportunity to take an active role in the decisions which affect their everyday activities. Dr. Hering's comments should be particularly useful to those interested in information about the organizational structure and function of teachers' centers, possible organizing procedures and funding sources, and the future direction of the movement.

Interview

ERIC/ChESS: What are the characteristics of a teachers' center?

HERING: I think the most important aspect of the teachers' center movement is that there is such a great diversity among centers. It's really true that there are no two centers alike. However, there are five major areas of similarity for most centers.

First, their programs are based on what I call teacher-felt needs and expressed interests. By that I don't mean to imply that teachers' centers only respond to teachers' needs. Although that does happen, the centers also respond to teachers' interests, providing opportunities for teachers to grow in an area of personal interest and competence.

Second, there is a strong sense of ownership on the part of the teachers. There is a spirit or a sense of togetherness, a feeling that causes teachers to refer to "our center" or "our place."

Third, teachers' centers are not necessarily defined with reference to a physical place or a site. While some people may think of it as a safe place or a haven, some centers don't have a site at all. They do a lot of what is called "advisory work"--working with individual teachers in their classrooms.

Fourth, teachers' center programs are voluntary. Teachers participate because they want to.

Fifth, and probably the most important, is that *teachers' centers believe in teachers*. Teacher growth is important to teachers' center staff, and by that I mean both professional growth and growth of the profession.

ERIC/ChESS: You also mentioned that there was diversity among centers. How do they differ from each other?

HERING: Let me point out a couple of ways in which they are different. They vary according to purpose. Some centers, for example, serve particular subject-matter needs or have a specific emphasis, such as special-education teachers' centers, or teachers' centers oriented to open education. The structure, size, and financial support can be very different. Some centers may be independent of a school system or a university. They may have a voluntary staff that reduces their financial need, or teachers may pay dues to use the center. Other centers may use community fund-raising activities or get financial aid from foundations. Some are supported by local units of the organized profession. Many are supported by school districts, or the federal government.

ERIC/ChESS: How does a teachers' center differ from conventional school district inservice and curriculum resource/media centers?

HERING: A major difference between teachers' centers and conventional services is that teachers' centers tend to work with individual teachers over a long period of time. This continuity is important. A workshop may provide good materials, new techniques, or new methods of teaching. Teachers attending this workshop would probably find it very helpful, and will leave the workshop and use what they have learned. While a teachers' center might do similar kinds of things, its main focus will be on continuity over a period of time--by working with individual teachers. A center is able to respond to individual needs and help put teachers in touch with other resources that are potentially helpful. A center focuses on the teacher as the person, which means that the responses have to vary over time, and they have to vary from one individual to another.

ERIC/ChESS: What suggestions would you offer to a school district that is interested in organizing a teachers' center?

HERING: If the initial interest originates in the central office--with a district administrator, for example--I'd say the first step would

be to involve teachers. Begin by investigating what programs ought to be offered--ask the teachers. An administrator can do a lot; he or she can get space for a center or provide time for people to work in a center. But the teachers have to perceive it as meeting their needs.

If the idea begins with the teachers, then the process is reversed. The interested teachers should first seek central office support. My main suggestion is to start small and to start slowly. Centers that begin with the goal to serve every teacher in the district start with a real problem.

I think it's better to start out with a small program that reaches a small number of teachers and does a very good job. It will grow from there; other people will come to the center. If you try to reach everybody at the outset, there's a possibility that you'll have to sacrifice individual attention and not really please anybody.

ERIC/ChESS: What funding-source suggestions can you offer?

HERING: There are several possibilities for funding. Local funds are one source. For example, school district funds, or community funds, or some combination might be one way to begin. State funds for staff development are also available in several states.

At the federal level, there are various ways to obtain financial support. The federal Teacher Center Program will probably not be able to support any new projects next year. However, some centers are funded under Title IV-C, Innovative Programs. Teachers could apply to their state IV-C person to establish a center. Some centers have received ethnic heritage grants to place ethnic heritage programs in their center. Others have sought Title XX support. There are, of course, many federal programs that are appropriate for teachers' centers. Don't ignore potential sources of support from private foundations and organizations like the Junior League. The support doesn't always have to be in the form of a check. Support can be in the form of furniture, or carpeting, or other tangible kinds of things.

ERIC/ChESS: What are the benefits to a school system in setting up a teachers' center?

HERING: The bottom-line benefit is improved instruction, which means increased learning. A center also can help overcome that sense of isolation that's so much a part of teachers' lives. It's especially true of elementary-school teachers. They just don't have a lot of opportunities for long-term professional contacts. A center contributes to a sense of community among teachers by allowing them to share information and to reduce that sense of isolation. Often, when we think about improving education, we assume that you give teachers specific things that they in turn give kids, and that's considered improvement. We don't often think about helping the teacher grow professionally--but I feel that a person with a good self-concept will do a better job.

ERIC/ChESS: What is the role of the Teachers' Center Exchange at the Far West Laboratory?

HERING: The Teachers' Center Exchange is best defined as a network, in which we refer people to other sources of information.

We also have a publications program which is designed to tap the informal and interactive network that we serve. Our publications are multiauthored, consisting of chapters by various authors from teachers' centers. We put out occasional papers and mail them free to everybody on our mailing list. Our papers are on such topics as staffing a teachers' center or establishing a center for rural towns.

Finally, we go to conferences, which gives us an opportunity to talk to people. That's tremendously important because when there's a major presentation to be made at a conference we typically try to get staff members from centers to make or help with those presentations. This provides an opportunity to learn from somebody on the firing line--from someone who has been involved with the problems. It also allows for some interesting networking.

ERIC/ChESS: Do you see an expansion of the teachers' center movement in the future? If so, will it take a form similar to the current movement?

HERING: The answer to the first question is yes. The answer to the second is I don't know. But I think one thing is obvious. The diversity of centers will continue. As more and more teachers' centers come into existence, there will be a variety of centers doing a variety of things. They aren't totally alike, by any means. I think the federal funds have spurred an interest in teachers' centers, and a lot of places that didn't get federal funds have gone ahead and started their own centers.

Epilogue

Readers who would like more information about teachers' centers may want to order the *Teachers' Center Exchange Directory*, by Jeanne Lance and Ruth Kreitzman. This publication contains highlights of programs, resources, staff, and other information about 78 teacher centers in the United States. The directory is available from the Far West Lab, Order Department, 1855 Folsom St., San Francisco, California 94103 ($6.50).